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A Comparative Analysis of Public Education and its Objectives in Nigeria and in the United States

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A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION AND ITS
OBJECTIVES IN NIGERIA AND IN THE UNITED STATES

A Field Project
Presented to the
Department of Educational Administration and Supervision
and the
Faculty of the Graduate College
University of Nebraska at Omaha

In partial fulfillment
of the requirement for the degree
Specialist in Education

by
Bassey Idiong
August, 1973

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FIELD PROJECT ACCEPTANCE

Accepted for the faculty of the Graduate College of the
University of Nebraska at Omaha, in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree Specialist in Education.

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It is a pleasure to express my sincere gratitude for the support and encouragement, so generously given to me in this work, by my committee members: Dr. Darrell Kellams, Chairman, Department of Educational Administration; Dr. Kenneth Burkholder, Professor of Educational Administration; and Dr. Robert Butler, Associate Professor, Department of Guidance and Counseling, who have added considerable expertise and insight. Their advice has materialized in my diverse and deeper involvement in professional practice, research and in more graduate courses.

In the Department of Educational Administration and Supervision of the University of Nebraska at Omaha, I was to learn more about my profession. The University of Nebraska at Omaha is renowned as a metropolitan university, a meeting ground for top professors in all areas with conflicting and controversial opinions and philosophies. The graduate student discovers that he is a swimmer in rough waters and strong currents that demand lusty sinews for survival.

The professors' ideas range from pure functionalism in design to the weird confines of the abstract philosophies of existentialism. Both extremities caught my fancy, and I must mention that I am indebted to Mr. and Mrs. Patrick Achleuter, Hooper, Nebraska, for the financial assistance which made this program possible. I also use this opportunity to express my appreciation to Dr. Elton Carter, Dean, Graduate College for the pieces of advice he gave me during those days of tribulation.

My thanks go to various administrators who have spared their time for informal discussions which proved real and useful to me. I feel it was a pleasure to have an educational program of this type with varied well-informed and well-experienced administrators in the light of varied experience as a teacher, educator and administrator in Nigeria.

I shall ever be grateful to the members of the Educational Administration Department, University of Nebraska at Omaha, who have provided me with a graduate assistantship for this program.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The education of the young has been one of the most pertinent concerns of man and woman in Nigeria. For centuries, famous men and women have expressed opinions or philosophized copiously on the objectives of public education in the country. The public education and its objectives in Nigeria is of much concern when it is compared to that of the United States. There are different problems in the areas noted by most educationists; too little money for education, outdated curricula, and not enough trained teachers. It is not that Nigerian schools fail to achieve their stated purposes, but they are not the exalted places their proponents proclaim. The secondary purpose of this paper is to bring to the attention of the Nigerian educators those objectives necessary in the Nigerian public education, as it is, in the United States when both were comparatively analyzed. The two countries were once under the dictate or influence of the British people.

There is a general belief that each country adopts a pattern of education that suits it best. This is very true to a certain extent depending upon the economy of the country. But as soon as some improvement comes into the economy, the educational program is changed as regards the objectives in any educational pattern. This, one will see, is applicable to Nigeria. According to statistics accumulated by the Federal Ministry of Education, Lagos, three out of four children

in a Nigerian family go to school. Since there is no law that all children must be educated, a greater number of these children go to vocational schools to learn some trade, after the completion of Elementary VI.¹ This is the ninth year that a child stays in school. He must pass the government final examination at the end of the ninth year, in order to have a certificate that qualifies him for the trade of his or her choice.

Some of these trade centers are owned by private individuals and very few are owned by the government. There are various kinds of workshops such as: motor workshops for those who want to become mechanics, carpentry workshops for carpenters, wholesale and retail shops where those interested in trading are trained. Even with this variety of choice of occupations, no criteria has been set down by the government to establish the worth of programs for those who leave school after Elementary VI graduation. How well the existing program and its objectives benefit the Nigerian citizens would be an interesting research study.

The school population in Nigeria continues to grow every year. It is therefore necessary to explore all possibilities for providing the kind of education that can best serve this group of learners. In this research, the writer concerns himself with providing background information of both countries to enable mainly the Nigerian educators

¹D.H. Williams, A Short Survey of Education in Nigeria (Northern Nigeria: Ministry of Education Press, 1959), p. 12.

to compare education in their country with as it is in the United States. This will in turn help them to re-evaluate and make changes in what the goals of education should be. This educational program in Nigeria is only now beginning to establish centers for information retrieval to handle the vast expansion in educational activities that began in the 1940's.

There is a great need for comparison of public education and its objectives between the United States and Nigeria, mainly for the innovation in the struggle to keep up with a rapidly advancing field of education in Nigeria. This project is to acquaint the readers with understanding of the different backgrounds involved between the two countries. Comparative studies have achieved international recognition, not merely as a matter of personal interest or academic dignity but as a part of the statecraft of nations. The project is intended to encourage an interest in, an awareness of, the cultural patterns which establish other countries' thought about education; for example in Nigeria.

The United States is an obvious choice for any student of education when involved in any system of comparison in the field. Some types of scholastic interest and some patterns of educational recruitment seem to belong more to Americans than to any other group of people. Their own objectives in public education are different from that of Nigeria. These considerations alone would justify Nigerian interest in American education. There are still other reasons why Nigerian public education is compared to that of the United States. Nigeria is one of the underdeveloped countries in Africa. The United States

represents one alternative, "shape of things to come." Even if people forget that the United States is the country claimed for liberty, they see plainly that it is the land of resources and machines.

Today, with the introduction of new methods in educational organization, administration, and content, the objectives or goals of modern education in Nigeria are unclear, largely owing to the conflict between the metropolitan idea of education and the agrarian society concept of education. Nigeria, like other African countries, has reached a stage in development when it must wrestle with the problems of defining its educational objectives in terms of its own concepts, needs and temperament.² Therefore, as an educational observer, the writer has determined to involve himself in research to identify similarities and contrasts, if any, in objectives of public education in these two countries.

The objectives of education and methods have differed from country to country and from place to place. The Greeks' idea of an educated man was to be a leader. He was to be mentally and physically balanced. The Romans placed emphasis on oratory and military training. In old Nigeria, the objectives of education were very clear. Parents taught their children practical arts; health and sanitation, farming, fishing, trading, folklore, rituals and other knowledge related to day-to-day living.

The United States has passed through this stage and some of her experiences should provide useful guidance in this study.

² A.B. Fafunway, History of Nigerian Higher Education (Macmillan and Co., Nigeria Ltd., 1971), p. 3.

Traditional European systems and objectives of education as imported to Nigeria have in fact contributed in no small measure to the backwardness of Nigeria's development in the objectives of education to suit their thinking, needs, temperament, and limitations.

Purpose of the Study

Each country develops its educational objectives that suit its needs. Since there are differences in the historical background of each country, economic and social conditions, no two countries have the same educational pattern or objectives. This study will provide a comparative analysis of public education and its objectives in the United States and in Nigeria.

Research Procedure

This research will involve most of the steps used by students of comparative education. The comparative analysis of public education and the objectives will be made between the United States and Nigeria. The comparison will consider the historical, economic, and social phases which have played a great part in the educational objectives of these two countries.

The main sources for this project will be books, periodicals dealing with educational objectives and descriptions of foreign educational programs dealing with Nigeria and the United States. Other sources will be newspapers and interviews with people such as Dr. Freund, who had been in Africa for research studies. He knows much about the two systems of education and my personal experience.

Delimitation

This research is limited to comparison and contrast in such form as the following: the historical background, the social setting, the economy as it relates to education. The objectives of public education in these two countries will be seen as related to the above statements.

The study is also limited to the following areas in Nigeria and in the United States.

- a) Curriculum Preparation
- b) Preparation of Teachers
- c) Higher Education and Its Organization

Defining of Terms

There are certain terms used in this paper which need to be defined in order to make the reading consistent. The terms are defined below.

Objectives: These are goals which are worked toward or striven for.

Public Education: The word describes a school that is maintained at the public expense for the education of the students.

Implication of the Study

This study has direct implication for students of education mainly in the comparative areas. It is also good for school administrators, college graduates as well as college educators all over the world. This project can attract all those who have interest in improving education to suggest certain things in order to benefit individuals and the society.

It is a generally well founded belief that all educational institutions have an important role to play in the diffusion of world culture and should also attempt to produce men and women with a broad view of international outlooks rather than limited minds with regional attitudes and beliefs. This project also can help in comparing ways and means of educational achievement of one culture over another and by so doing develop a sense of adaptation. In comparing the educational pattern of two countries such as this, there is an exchange of information on how each country meets her needs in the field of education.

I am convinced that this study is of great importance to Nigerian educators and those from other underdeveloped countries who seek improvement and assistance from developed countries like the United States. It will help them understand the background of each student from these countries and by these develop sympathy and encouragement for the less fortunate. This realization will lead to expanded study of all aspects of international affairs, and the nature and development of different civilizations and cultures. Through effective international understanding and cooperation, students should learn to know, appreciate, and respect other people and their culture, their traditions, customs, attitudes, social institutions, needs and aspirations.³

³World Survey of Education, Vol. 4 (New York: UNESCO Publishing Center, 1966), p. 928.

Assumptions

There are similarities and differences in the objectives of public education between the United States and Nigeria. There is an assumption that the two countries, having differences in background and economics, adopt such objectives in public education that suit the needs of the society. Each country plans her education based on her culture and philosophy.

Nigeria, as an underdeveloped country, may from time to time attempt to solve some of her problems or may seek advice and some suggestions from the outside world, particularly, a country like the United States.

CHAPTER II

EDUCATION IN NIGERIA

This chapter is concerned mainly with the comprehensive study of the educational objectives in Nigeria from historical, societal and cultural viewpoints and the economic setting.

Historical Background

There is no need to dwell on the vastness of Nigeria, except to remind ourselves that in area it is 356,669 square miles. It is four times the size of Canada or Texas and Oklahoma put together. The population is 62 million (1970). Nigeria is located on the West Coast of Africa and is about 50° north of the Equator. The coast itself is well within the equatorial belt and is very fertile, and consequently thickly populated. The Republic of Nigeria came into existence on October 1, 1960.

It is obvious that in so vast an area there are, and must be some great differences in climate, culture and of everything else. Nigeria has come late into the current of civilization because of certain factors. Sahara desert in the north acted as a barrier from north to south. At any rate, many historians have confirmed that Nigeria had a longer connection with the Europeans.⁴

⁴A.V. Murray, The School in the Bush (Holland: Frank Cass and Co., Ltd., 1967), p. 14.

After the abolition of the slave trade, Nigeria became the scene of various political and educational experiments which were designed partly as a compensation to the citizens. European education, according to the methods then in vogue, was established. The result had been that Nigerians had become through education and commerce and the connection with Europe, a much more sophisticated country than any other black country in Africa. It is also a generalization that sophistication is the greatest foe to education.

Nigeria and its hinterland are two distinct regions. As we go north, the land rises and we pass from a region of thick vegetation to savannah lands. The interior is much healthier than the coast, and the extension of railways has brought the two areas together and made possible a great variety of marketable crops. Nigerians are of three well marked types--the sophisticated ones who usually call themselves Christians; the second group are few in number. They call themselves animists. The final type are the Moslems who can be found mainly in the north. In the north, Islam is a potent factor and is particularly strong in those towns found far away from the seaboard.

Nigeria was the largest of the British West African colonies. It included the colony, which consisted of the capital city of Lagos. European contact began in the fifteenth century when Portuguese explorers reached the coast, followed in the sixteenth century by trade in produce and slaves. Up to 1890, comparatively little was known of

the interior but in the north there had been traffic for generations of caravan routes across the Sahara.

The great city of Kano, with its walls some 14 miles in circumference, is still a center where camel caravans from across the desert meet the railway from the coast. Northern Nigeria was amalgamated with Southern Nigeria in 1914. On the eastern boundary was the mandated territory of the British Cameroons, which was administered as part of Nigeria.⁵

On the Atlantic coast is a belt of swamp and mangrove forest from ten to 60 miles in depth, intersected by streams of the Niger delta and by a number of rivers and creeks. The Niger river describes a huge curve through the country; flowing into it is the Benue river, the second most important river which rises in the Cameroons. Palm oil, palm kernels, valuable timber and cocoa are produced in the south.⁶

In the north, ground nuts are an important crop; cattle and sheep are raised and mixed farming is cultivated. There are coal mines and tin mines which have increased their output. There are at present numerous minerals in the country which makes it the richest in the whole continent. There are very many tribes and dialects in the country. The two largest tribes are: in the north, the Hausas who conquered the tribal inhabitants and set up great city states under

⁵ Jackson Davis, Thomas Campbell and Margaret Wrong, Africa Advancing (New York: The Friendship Press, 1945), p. 55.

⁶ Ibid.

Moslem rule; in the southeast, the Ibos, east of the Niger; on the west of the river Niger, there are a number of powerful tribes who ruled the highly organized states.

Before the coming of the Europeans, the whole land, north and south, was populated by a tough and vigorous people who developed their own system of government and agriculture. The smelting of iron ore and working of metals were done with skill, cotton was spun, woven and dyed in many fine and intricate designs, leather was worked, pottery and baskets were made, and in both north and south there was a highly organized system of internal trade with many great markets.⁷

In the South, buying and selling was, and is, conducted in the main by woman traders. In both north and south, there are towns of considerable size which existed before the coming of Europeans. Traditional rulers known as native authorities, continued to rule states which varied in size from some thousands to some millions of people as local government units. The system of government varied, ranging from the great Eminents of the north administered according to Moslem laws, to highly organized kingdom.

In general, the native authorities managed the land on behalf of the community according to traditional system of tenure. The people rendered services and paid various dues, which were being replaced by taxation.

⁷Ibid., p. 56.

The states obtained fees from courts and markets, and some royalties from mines and timber. From these revenues, funds were provided to build roads, markets, schools, and dispensaries. A part of these funds were used in the payment of the councilors.

Education in the Colonial Period

By far the greater part of native education in Nigeria was in the hands of Christian missions. The government was to supplement their work rather than to replace it.⁸ The Church Missionary Society began work in Nigeria in 1845 and in 1846 the Church of Scotland Mission was established. The third denomination which started work in Nigeria during the colonial period was the Qua Iboe Mission. They started work in the following cities in 1887: Lagos, Abeokuta and Iwo. These churches opened schools in villages and more advanced schools, training colleges, hospitals and leper colonies. The first Nigerian bishop that was appointed by the Anglican Church in West Africa was Bishop Crowther, who had been educated in Sierre-Leone and Britain.⁹ By that time, the main objectives of education were to train Nigerians on how to read and write. Secondly, they were to be made ministers who will read the Bible for the rest of the members with interpretations.

The extent of missionary activity in education was illustrated by the fact that of 350,000 students in school, 320,000 were in mission

⁸ A.V. Murray, The School in the Bush (London: Frank Cass and Co., Ltd., 1967), p. 65.

⁹ Davis, et. al., p. 60.

schools.¹⁰ In the big cities in Southern Nigeria a high percentage of children attended schools, while in the northern part of the country the attendance was about two per cent or less. The reason in the North was that the population was predominantly Moslem and there was a wide-spread prejudice against the education of girls. There were many Koranic schools for Moslem boys who were interested in school.

The Church Missionary Society in 1905 established work in the town of Zaria even though the mission concentrated on Southern Nigeria after its establishment in 1845. The denomination built hospitals and schools outside the town. Christianity was preached and many churches were opened. From that year on, other missions like Sudan United Mission, Sudan Interior and the Brethren Mission established their works too in Northern Nigeria.

The missionaries encouraged the teaching of rural science in the primary schools under their control. All missionaries in the North and South of Nigeria were assisted by the American Mission to Lepers and the British Empire Leprosy Relief Association. The leper communities that had been created with agricultural and industrial undertakings staffed by patients, showed that many things could be achieved in certain types of rural development.¹¹ The missionaries contributed much toward the education of Nigerians, academically and religiously.

¹⁰Ibid.

¹¹Ibid. p. 61.

As in elementary and secondary education, the Christian missions played a major role in early education in Nigeria. Consequently, the early objectives were to train Nigerians for service in the church. The primary aim of Christian missions was to make converts. Their chief emphasis was on religion.¹²

The situation remained virtually the same with all branches of education, chiefly in the hands of the missions until 1926. It was then decided that education was a state function. But since "native education was valueless without religion," it was decided that it should be left to a large extent in missionary hands, aided by the government subsidy and organized under government supervision and direction. In 1926, it was also decided that primary and secondary schools should be the chief sphere of activities for the missionaries and that technical schools and higher instruction should be the government's representation on the governing bodies.

The Early Role of the Government in Education

The British government made Lagos, the capital of Nigeria, a colony in 1861 and later the rest of what is now known as Nigeria. The missionaries had already started to operate in certain parts of Nigeria. They had built elementary and secondary schools and had trained several Nigerians as ministers of religion. Educational activities started before the British occupation and continued during it for a long time before there was much interest in education.

¹²Fafunwa, p. 8.

In order to place the government's role in its proper perspective, it is necessary to review Britain's policy on education in Nigeria. The British colonial government in Nigeria had to act on directives forwarded to it from the Colonial Office in London. Consequently, like the other people in other British colonial territories, the Nigerian people were subject to the pleasures and displeasures of the Colonial Office, which determined all policies: economic, social and political.

From 1861 to 1882 the British government was totally indifferent to the education of Nigerians as well as those of other Africans in general. During this period, it made no written or oral statement on the subject. However, in 1882, the government appointed one inspector of schools for the whole of British West Africa and passed an education ordinance creating a board of education.¹³ The first written British policy prior to the "1925 Command Paper" was a terse statement by the Privy Council to the Colonial Office in 1882. The Privy Council considered how the industrial schools for the colored races might be conducted in the colony to render the labor of the children available towards meeting some part of the expenses of their education. The document emphasized the value of religious instruction and missionary teaching, stressed character development and called for better cultivation of the land by the Nigerians. On the whole, the

¹³ Annual Report of Education Department, Nigeria, 1937, p. 1.

main purpose of the document was to improve the production and increase the export of Nigerian raw materials.

In 1892 the British government appointed its first Inspector of Schools for the Colony and Protectorate of Lagos and in 1899 founded its first school in the colony, which was the education of Muslim children in Lagos. After the establishment of the Protectorate of Southern Nigeria in 1900 the government appointed its first Inspector of Schools for the Protectorate of Southern Nigeria and established an education department for Southern Nigeria in 1903.¹⁴ These first efforts by the colonial government were very limited. They were mostly supervisory, and private initiative and missionary endeavours were responsible for the education of those few Nigerians who were attending school from the 1800's to 1900. Up to the end of the nineteenth century, the government played very little or no part in the education of Nigerian citizens.

The Phelps-Stokes' Survey

Between 1920 and 1924, the Phelps-Stokes Fund of New York, a private American foundation, conducted a survey of British East, Central and West Africa. The mission visited Nigeria during 1920-21 to investigate the existing system of education. It was appalled by what they saw. The survey exposed the British government's neglect of Nigerians and other British West Africans' education and the gap between what the few existing schools were teaching and the actual

¹⁴ Annual Report of Education Department, Nigeria, 1949, p. 4.

needs of the people. The report made a great impression in Nigeria and in the United Kingdom. It caused the British government to appoint an Advisory Committee on Native Education in British Tropical Africa in 1925. This memorandum contained thirteen "broad principles" and it was the thirteen of these that had some relevance for Nigerian education.

A complete educational system should include primary (including infant) education; secondary education of different types; technical and vocational schools and institutions, some of which may hereafter reach university rank for such subjects as teacher education, medicine and agriculture; adult education; the education of the whole community should advance *pari passu*.¹⁵

Departmental Training Courses (Technical)

The survey school built in one of the cities in Nigeria, Oyo, was symbolic of the government's early attitude toward education in Nigeria. This attitude was conditioned by necessity, gradualism and indecisiveness as to what the role of the Nigerian should be in the social, economic and political life of colonial Nigeria. From 1901 to 1928, there was a constant shortage of British personnel in the civil service, but this shortage became particularly acute during the depression period of 1928 to 1935, when most of the few British civil servants had to be dismissed for lack of funds.¹⁶ To compensate for the loss of personnel, the government decided to establish departmental training programs for Nigerians in some of its departments. In this

¹⁵ African Education: A Study of Educational Policy and Practice in British Tropical Africa (Oxford University Press, 1953), p. 3.

¹⁶ Fafunwa, p. 24.

way, it would be able to fill the vacant posts and others that might open from time to time.

The aim of the government was to train people for the lower echelons only. Hesitation in employing Nigerians in administrative echelons of the service, except as clerks and minor functionaries, was very great at this period. Whenever an occasional attempt was made to promote a Nigerian to a slightly higher post, he would normally be made an assistant to a European officer. Lord Hailey, the noted authority on African Affairs, observed and made this statement:

The considerations which decided the character of education are largely political, for the type of instruction given depends on the view held of the place in society which the educated Nigerians and their fellow British colonial countries in West Africa may be expected to fill . . . British policy as yet exhibits no clear view of the future of the educated Africans. There are few instances in British Colonial history when the future of the educated native has been consciously determined, or the educational system deliberately adjusted to fit him for it.¹⁷

It was against this background that the government departmental training courses were first instituted between 1901 and 1938. A course for junior technical staff was started in 1931 for training Nigerian technical assistants. This was an instructor course like the course offered by the Survey School, and its aim was to train Nigerians for supervisory duties.

The curriculum consisted of English, mathematics, electricity and magnetism, surveying, building construction, and other allied

¹⁷ Lord Hailey, An African Survey (London, 1944), p. 259.

technical subjects. Ten students were admitted annually, and a few students were sponsored by the Sierra Leone and the Gambia governments. Between 1931 and 1944 about 13 Nigerians were trained in the school of Public Works Department. A similar course, staffed by a member of the Public Works Department was established in Kaduna in 1938 (Northern Nigeria). In this course, the annual intake was four to six students. At the end of the three year period, the students had to take appointments with the Northern Native Administration.

The Nigerian (government) Railroad had established a department training course as early as 1901 to train selected station staff who must have had at least five years' railway experience. The entrance requirement was the Junior High School Certificate, but from 1942 on, it required all candidates to have a Senior Cambridge Certificate or Middle VI Certificate. The duration of the course ranged from six to nine months. In 1936-1937 financial year, the Nigerian Railway also started training Nigerian engine drivers in view of the reductions which have been made in the number of European drivers during that period. In 1928 the Marine Department faced with similar problems, was compelled to design a course to train those who will ultimately occupy senior posts on Nigerian Marine vessels. The course lasted six years, part of which was spent at sea, and those who completed it were presented for the external Board of Trade Certificate.¹⁸

¹⁸Fafunwa, p. 25.

The Post and Telegraph Department established its own training course in 1931 under the European instructor. This was also a six year course designed to train subinspectors of lines. The first three years were devoted to theory and the last three to practical work. Four to six students were admitted annually, and the admission requirement was the Senior Cambridge Certificate, or completion of a secondary school course. The Department of Agriculture offered three courses similar to those already described. In May, 1938, it opened a forestry school at Samaru Agricultural Station near Zaria in Northern Nigeria.¹⁹ After a year's course, each student was attached to a forestry officer to enable him to gain practical administrative experience. The main objective of the course was to improve the quality of the Nigerian Field Staff in the Northern Provinces and to help disseminate an appreciation of the aims and value of forestry among the people.

The veterinary school was opened in 1935 by the same department to train assistant veterinary officers at Vom in Northern Nigeria. The report of 1936 claimed that the value of the course was reflected in the efficiency of the staff and that constant supervision was not necessary.²⁰ Upon the successful completion of all departmental courses and training, Nigerians were employed as assistant or subordinate officers in the appropriate departments or divisions to assist the

¹⁹ Ibid.

²⁰ Great Britain, Colonial Office Report for the Year, 1938
(London: HMSO, 1940), p. 124.

European superior officers. The courses were limited in scope but they could be equated with one or two years' work at the University level or a junior college. There were no doubts that these courses were necessitated by the shortage of Europeans and that admission was carefully controlled to ensure that there were not many people trained for a limited number of positions.

In spite of all these limitations, it was remarkable that Nigerianization of the civil service, particularly at the technical level, was unobtrusively started as early as 1901, although it was not fully underway till fifty years later. If Nigeria could claim the edge on most African states in Africanization of the civil service, it was because of this unplanned, unconscious effort on the part of the British civil servants in Nigeria. Its only purpose was to ensure the smooth running of the civil service. The immediate causes of the development can be summarized in this way.

During the depression years, the colonial government in Nigeria found it difficult to recruit Europeans from Britain, but at the same time it was compelled to dismiss some of those Europeans already employed for lack of funds. Consequently, there was an acute shortage of staff, particularly at the senior levels of the service. To compensate for this, the various departments were compelled to train a few Nigerians to fill the vacant posts for less pay. This led to the development of the departmental training schemes, which started after the turn of the twentieth century and became much more numerous and intensive in the 1930's.

During the reign of the British government they assumed the control of the country, and the primary objectives in the country as a whole were (1) to maintain law and order, (2) to train Nigerians (very limited) in those areas which they can be placed when there are shortages of Europeans, (3) to train the people indirectly for self-government, (4) to supplant the British language by the introduction of English as a basis of communication²¹ Although the above mentioned statements seemed to be the main objectives for the foreign rulers, at the end they had given to Nigeria statehood. The colonial powers succeeded in governing the country and imposing law and order within its boundaries, and providing a lingua franca--English or pidgin in the country. Some Nigerians may hate colonialism but it is a general belief that it gave them the birth. Another contribution by the colonial rule to Nigeria as a country is the membership in the Commonwealth.²²

The third legacy to Nigerians was the indirect rule laid down that the customs and traditions of the natives should be interfered with as little as possible, and that the colonial power should exercise its authority through the traditional rulers. The path to self-government in Nigeria was in the words of Lord Lugard (the author of the philosophy) to be "sought by the education of their own rulers

²¹Ken Post, The New States of West Africa (Oxford Press, Ibadam, 1969).

²²Ibid., p. 45.

and the gradual extension of the powers," rather than "by the introduction of an alien system of rule by British-educated and politically-minded progressives."²³ The appeal of this philosophy to the pragmatic unphilosophical British was that it lent an air of righteousness to colonialism--which they already suspected to be essentially unrighteous --and that its practice enabled Nigerian citizens to be governed with the minimum of British money and manpower.

The underlying philosophy had long term consequences which are still all-pervasive. In Northern Nigeria, it entrenched the less progressive feudal overlords. Everywhere it helped to preserve rather than to break down tribalism and to maintain divergent, customary laws and the traditional tribunals which enforced them. The fourth legacy as had been mentioned was the British-style education. The British left Nigeria with an embryonic educational system closely on her own.²⁴ So long as the policy of indirect rule was followed, Nigerians' education was largely in the hands of Christian missions, whose aim was primarily to convert to Christianity, to eradicate slavery and witchcraft, and to confer on their converts such an education as would fit them for the station in life to which it had pleased God to call them. The main missions in Nigeria had their headquarters in England and

²³F.D. Lugard, The Dual Mandate in British Tropical Africa (London, 1965), p. 86.

²⁴L.C.B. Gower, Independent Africa (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1967), p. 10.

Scotland, the education which they gave was based on British ideas, except that it stopped short of the standards aimed at in Britain.

The Christianity imparted was often only skin-deep and had not withstood the spread of Islam or eradicated the belief in witchcraft and juju. The education was valued. Those who achieved it were not content with what they could acquire locally and sought to further it by going abroad.²⁵

The colonial government for the first time moved into the educational field having seen the interest of most Nigerian students. They set up new schools and assumed the major share of the finance and control of the policy of mission schools. They increased the facilities for higher technical education, and made a cautious start in local university education.

The general organization, both of schools and universities, was on the British pattern. Children at secondary schools were required to take English School-leaving examinations. The belief was that any such qualification would open the door to white-collar employment which alone was highly prized. A classical education was especially valued. Far more Nigerian students learned Latin and Greek than French. The only university that was in Nigeria, allied as it was to English universities, taught for English degrees. Although their special relationship arrangements allowed for the adaptation to local conditions, not much use was made of this freedom since the teachers were largely

²⁵ Ibid.

from Britain, and tended to believe in the syllabi and curricula with which they were familiar.²⁶ * /

Chapels, libraries, common rooms and music rooms were built. But a highly educated student body from an exceptionally cultured home background was not available and without it the tutorial or supervisory system, which was the essence of Oxbridge's instruction, could not function properly. The emphasis tended to be on the traditional academic disciplines rather than on technological or vocational training. English, history, literature, the classics and philosophy rather than medicine, law, engineering or agriculture were taught. Those who raised their voices against the creation of academic ivory towers, producing an intellectual elite remote from their own people, were decried as displaying the outmoded colonial belief that the best was too good for the Nigerians.²⁷ ✓

Another point of importance was the economic legacy of colonialism. The vast majority of Nigerian population lived by subsistence farming, and the main economic activity was the production of raw materials, mainly agricultural and their export to the United Kingdom in exchange for manufactured goods.

In some cases, the control of the whole process was in expatriate hands; in others, the initial production of the raw materials and the ultimate trading in the imported goods was in Nigerian hands, with Europeans controlling the intermediate processes. Secondary

²⁶ Ibid., p. 12.

²⁷ Ibid.

industry was virtually nonexistent and commerce was largely controlled by European firms. There were some other forms of legacies left behind by the British after Nigeria gained her independence on October 1, 1960. Such things as the Civil Service Tradition, the military and the police, the rule of law and the legacy of the common law.

Aims and Objectives of Education

The chief goals or objectives of education during the colonial years were to help Nigerians take their place in a self-sufficient, economic sphere. A basic re-education must accompany all these improvements; a new economic consciousness must displace the concerns with family, religion, witchcraft and juju which as yet possessed the Nigerians' mind. The missionaries in particular had prepared the Nigerians for heaven, the Europeans for white-collar jobs.²⁸ The Europeans would help instead to prepare fewer junior clerks, and encouragement in the supply of raw materials, more experts in agriculture and forestry, more technicians in light industry, and more students in business administration.²⁹

However, despite the elaborate schemes by the different denominations who worked in Nigeria and the government, they were not able to make much progress towards their aims, although the educational system in Nigeria became intensely rationalistic in the 1950's. The

²⁸Theodore Friend, Between Two Empires (Yale University Press, 1965), p. 231.

²⁹Ibid.

inauguration of the Republic of Nigeria on October 1, 1960, saw the education of the Nigerians revert to its pre-colonial days.

Modern Period

The present system of education in Nigeria is a continuation of the system established by the British. Nigerians were convinced that if they send their children to school they will one day hold a white-collar job. They began sending their children to school, and increasing enrollment every school year led to the expansion of primary and secondary schools and the creation of the universities. These have provided the country with a complete system of public education with higher education offered in the country's five universities. The first university was founded in 1948 (Ibadan University). Higher education is also offered by the private colleges in the country. More private schools were founded before independence and as the public schools could not accommodate all the children seeking admission, the private institutions continued to meet these needs.

English was made the language of instruction as well as the vernacular (native dialect) in these schools except in universities where the medium of communication is English. The problem of religious instruction was settled by the passage of an act which provided that no teacher or other person shall teach or criticize the doctrine of any church, religious sect, or denomination, or attempt to influence the children in any public or government schools for or against any church or religious sect.

The Educational Act of 1951 provided for the complete revision of the public elementary school system, and solved the problem of accommodating the growing school population. The first University in Nigeria was the University of Ibadan. It did and still does provide higher education through its departments of arts, science, medicine, agriculture, religious studies and teacher training. This University became autonomous in December, 1962, as it was made an appendage of London University.

The second University is the University of Nigeria, Nsukka. This was born in the mind of the founder, Dr. Naimidi Azikiwe more than twenty years prior to its establishment.³⁰ Azikiwe's idea was contained in his book, Renascent Africa, published in 1937. He believed that Africans had been "miseducated" and that they needed mental emancipation if they were to be responsive to the social, economic and political needs of their society. He wrote:

Universities have been responsible for shaping the destinies of races and nations and individuals. They are centers where things material are made to be subservient to things intellectual in all shapes and forms. No matter in what field of learning, at any university there is an aristocracy of mind over matter.

This ideal university, irrespective of its physical location in Nigeria, "is where you will notice that the curriculum is balanced and, consequently, its graduates know little of classics, the humanities and the sciences." This is a land-grant university patterned after American land-grant universities. This is the first land-grant institution in the Commonwealth. The 1961-1962 enrollment of the university numbered 905 students. In 1962-1963 school year, there were 1,148 students and the academic staff of over 160 representing

³⁰A.B. Fafunwa, New Perspectives in African Education (Macmillan & Co., Ltd., 1967), pp. 130-135.

a dozen nationalities, and came from universities all over the world.³¹

In the 1964-1965 academic year the University of Nigeria enrollment was 2,499 with a faculty of over 250 in thirty-seven departments representing the following eight faculties--art, agriculture, education, engineering, business management, law, science, and social studies, plus three other departments for extra-mural, African and economic development studies.³²

The third university is the Ahmadu Bello University at Zaria in Northern Nigeria. The Commission on Post-School Certificate and Higher Education in Nigeria (the Ashby Commission), recommended in its 1960 report that "a university in the Northern Region should be established" and suggested that "advice should be sought from overseas before any decision is made on the scope and activities of the university." The government of Northern Nigeria invited a delegation from the London-based Inter-University Council for Higher Education in the Colonies in April, 1961, to perform the task already earmarked for such a delegation by the Ashby Report.

On October 4, 1962, the university was formally opened. Teaching started on October 10, with 462 students and 89 academic staff in the following fields: arts, science, law, engineering, education, architecture, agriculture, veterinary medicine, and administration.

³¹Namidi Azikiwe, Origin of the University of Nigeria (University of Nigeria Press, 1963), p. 7.

³²A.B. Fafunwa, A History of Nigerian Higher Education, p. 183.

The University of Ife

This was the only university not recommended by the Ashby Commission. The commission was of the opinion that the Zaria branch, of what was then the Nigerian College, should form the nucleus of a northern university, that the branch in Enugu in the former Eastern Nigeria should be upgraded to the status of a University in conjunction with the University of Nigeria.

University of Lagos

This is the fourth University in Nigeria. The Ashby Commission recommended that a university should be established in Lagos and the Federal Government of Nigeria accepted this recommendation. The government expressed its intention to establish faculties of medicine and law, and the study of economics and commercial subjects, together with the acquisition of professional qualifications in Banking, Insurance, Accounting, Transport, and Business Administration.

After the release of the White Paper, the Federal Government requested UNESCO assistance for an advisory commission to make recommendations on the organization, administration, and financing of the University of Lagos and formulate a plan for its development.³³ The UNESCO Advisory Commission observed that as a cosmopolitan capital city, Lagos offered a unique opportunity for a city university, particularly in professional and technical fields, and recommended the establishment of:

³³ University of Lagos Calendar, 1967-68, p. 17.

1. A five year evening course for the LLB program in addition to the three year residential course in that field.
2. An engineering school with special reference to Nigerian needs.
3. A faculty of science that should not only provide basic science training for its own sake but also for the applied science faculties of Engineering and Medicine, as well as for the training of teachers . . . for increasing the number of graduate teachers in Nigeria.
4. A faculty of arts that would have strong ties with the faculty of education in the training of graduate teachers would develop specialists and post-graduate courses in English, comparative religion, history, psychology and sociology.
5. An institute of education to further research in primary and secondary education and to promote closer cooperation and coordination between the Faculty of Education and other teacher training centers in the area.³⁴

In April, 1962, the Federal Parliament passed the Lagos University Act and both the Provisional Council and the Medical School Council were set up. The University was opened on October 4, 1962, on Lagos mainland. It had an academic staff of twenty-four and a student enrollment of 100. The law faculty started its evening courses in January, 1963, while the faculty of business and social studies began its evening courses in October, 1963. At the commencement exercise of 1964, academic session, the University added the new faculties of arts, education, engineering, and science.

As a result, these schools have produced an impressive number of competent and intermediate level trained people, such as accountants, lawyers, pharmacists, and teachers. In the final analysis,

³⁴ Report of the UNESCO Advisory Commission for the Establishment of the University of Lagos, 1961, p. 34.

schools at all levels in Nigeria, private and public, have been and continue to be overcrowded without proper regard to any rational use of the limited financial and material resources that are available for education. The government's policy of free education for everyone has not yet been realistic. A greater number of the wealthier families attend secondary schools and universities that charge higher tuition and fees. Presumably, they are able to get a better education than their less fortunate neighbors.

SOCIAL ASPECTS OF NIGERIANS

Many Nigerians have had contact with Western culture and have adopted a number of its elements; the traditional cultures, however, remain very much a part of the present and play a decided role in the country's social system.³⁵ The various ethnic peoples have a strong sense of identity for their own group. Overlaying the various traditional social systems is a life style introduced in some areas of the country by the British scarcely a generation ago. The object associated with this way of life--from tractors to educational systems--have been adopted generally as the economic means of the people allow. Traditional values, however, derive largely from Nigerian cultures rather than from European models.

Nigerians are a culturally diverse people, and few general statements about their social structure can be very well made. Social

³⁵Area Handbook for Nigeria (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1972), p. 129.

organizations range from simple groups of inter-connected families with little political superstructures to highly elaborate city-states. In all ethnic groups the family is important and in most, it forms the basic unit of the social structure.³⁶ Kingship and hereditary rank are found in two areas of the country; the Hausa Northern states and Western section occupied by the Yoruba. Kingship is still important, particularly in the north, where the royal tradition is supported by strong religious ties. The central government can function more efficiently than the kings in the purely secular realm, and in many areas the institution is being absorbed into the modern secular government.

Although slavery is no longer permitted, almost everywhere the social status of the descendants of slaves has been affected by this earlier practice. There are forms of social mobility which have similarities in many areas, including membership in title societies or other associations that confer prestige, such as European-style higher education and the holding of public office.³⁷ All these in some way involve the acquisition and wise expenditure of wealth.

Guild-like professional groups are important in some areas, particularly those occupied by the Hausa and the Yoruba. Voluntary associations that provide various aspects of mutual support have gained power and importance as the movement of workers to far-away cities has increased. During the colonial era, the British maintained a high degree of social separation from the Nigerians. Government officials and members of business firms made up the greater part of

³⁶ Ibid.

³⁷ Ibid.

of the European presence, and they were largely situated in the cities. In the cities, also, were found the European-style houses, and the automobiles, the clubs, and the shops that formed the model and goal of the young educated Nigerian's aspirations.

After the World War II, because of the advance of educational levels and in anticipation of ultimate national independence, Nigerians began to enter the ranks of the governmental administration. Within the colonial community, missionaries were respected, but few were integrated in the governing group. The missionaries, too, did not form a unified group because they came from various backgrounds and represented a number of often rivalrous Christian communities. Their personal contacts with Nigerian cultures and their role as educators, however, brought them closer to the people than most government officials were able to come. The people respected them for their learning and looked on them sympathetically, despite the contradictions between Christian teachings and ethnic traditions at many points.³⁸

The climate was regarded as inhospitable by the Europeans, therefore, there was no influx of white settlers into the country. Because of this, the traditional ways of the ethnic groups were never threatened by Europeans and their culture; the traditional cultures remained vitally operative. The culture built up by the former colonial elite in Nigeria was one of sojourners. All the members had goals of

³⁸Ibid., p. 130.

home leave and ultimate retirement somewhere away from Nigeria. This pattern also has strongly persisted with the educated Nigerian elite who replaced the British. At present, a large proportion of the inhabitants of the modern Nigerian cities, or of the modern areas of the old cities, regard themselves as temporary residents with no deep emotional investment in the life of the city.

Despite the observable differences between the modern Nigerians of the cities and traditionally oriented rural people, the ethnic ties are still very strong and deepseated between members of the elite and their home areas. The homogeneity of the educated elite is still more a matter of appearance than a social reality. Many educated persons living in the cities plan to retire to the region of Nigeria where they were born. Since the Christian mission schools were the source of Nigerian education in the country, the greater proportion of the members of the educated elite are Christians. The Christian Missions were largely excluded from the Muslim North; the greater part of the educated class comes from the southern groups.

Family

A number of family relationship patterns are widely found in Nigeria, such as respect for age, the high value set on having children, sharply differentiated roles for the sexes. Most traditions stress descent through the male line, but the male lineage of an individual's mother often has great importance as that of his father.³⁹ In non-Muslim areas the male links, reckoned through many generations, serve

³⁹Ibid.

to join cousins into extensive lineages that are the basic traditional sources of an individual's social identity. The Muslim societies of the north differ in the degree of their adoption in Islamic family principles, many of which differ from the traditional Nigerian forms. Generally, the importance of the lineage groups is reduced. The accent on male dominance is greater than among non-Muslims and women are secluded to a greater extent.

The system of kinship forms the basis for many ties, obligations, and rights in traditional societies. Groups bound by common ancestry form the principal or exclusive basis for the organization of social life, land tenure, political roles, and even religion in many of the local traditions. Kinship ties have relatively the greatest range and significance in small societies of the eastern area of Nigeria. Among the Muslims of the north, where land tenure, religion, and civic relationships are not systematically organized along kinship lines, extended lineage ties are not maintained except among the aristocracy, whose privileged status does rest in part on genealogy.⁴⁰

Marriage is regarded primarily as the means of acquiring children. Fertility is of paramount value; sterility is dreaded and may be used as grounds for divorce. The tie between husband and wife commonly is much weaker than the tie between either parent, particularly the mother, and the offspring. Celibacy is virtually unknown and is almost invariably the result of physical or mental disability. In some instances

⁴⁰ Ibid.

women of high modern education have priced themselves out of a traditional marriage and have difficulty finding husbands of equal status, but such individuals are in a small minority.⁴¹ Traditionally, marriage for girls takes place a few years after puberty; boys usually marry later.

There are three forms of marriage which co-exist in the country. Indigenous marriage customs permitting unlimited polygamy and based on the payment of bridewealth are common to many groups. Muslim marriage customs limiting polygamy to four wives predominate in the north. Christian monogamous marriages are found mostly in the south. Monogamy as a secular Western institution is practiced in some degree even among educated non-Christians, but monogamy of any sort is not generally popular and, except among Christians, is rarely ideal. The government has established a marriage ordinance, based on English common law, under which a couple may solemnize their marriage before a Christian minister or a civil registrar and which then requires them to observe European marriage customs.

The mission churches' doctrinal requirement of monogamy is a chronic source of controversy and tension. Some of the adherents practice polygamy more or less openly despite the clergy's disapproval. Many of the smaller independent churches fully acknowledge polygamy as honorable and attempt to vindicate the traditional Nigerian custom by calling on Old Testament Biblical authority. In marriage relationships, the formal principle of male dominance in the household persists throughout the country and women have some degree of economic independence.⁴²

⁴¹Ibid., p. 132.

⁴²Ibid., p. 133.

Trade is open to women in all areas and some of them have gained great wealth from it even by European standards. Traditional marriage is a dignified institution surrounded by an involved etiquette, but in the southern groups this formality is coupled with warmth and affection. Divorce is possible for either sex. Among the Hausa in the north the situation is different, the marriage relation being controlled by restraints and formal avoidance.⁴³ A husband and wife may not call each other by their first names; and they must also avoid their first child, who is frequently adopted by the paternal grandparents.

By Muslim law only the husband is allowed to divorce; thus a dissatisfied Hausa wife often has to rely on a traditional religious cult to help her obtain divorce. Although modern marriages in the cities could be free from scrutiny and interference of lineage members, both husband and wife nevertheless, actually prefer to maintain strong ties with their parents and home towns by means of visits on the holidays and frequent exchange of letters and word of mouth greeting from friends who happen to be traveling between the relatives. Almost without exception a young city couple plans to return to their home village at the time of their retirement. Kinship ties remain most conservative in form in areas where neither Islam nor Christianity has supplanted the indigenous religion because kinship and the pagan religions are logically interlocked with each other and with the whole heritage of custom.

⁴³ Ibid.

Ceremonies are held to propitiate spirits of recently deceased relatives and of various ancestors as remote as the lineage founders, extending as far back as fourteen generations.⁴⁴ Other relationships in the family take their cue from that of the household head. Age outranks youth and male outranks female. Accordingly within one household the person of highest rank is usually an old man, and the person of lowest rank is often a very young girl. The etiquette that governs this vertical hierarchy of rank is clean and definite, and the individual always has a sense of place with either his superiors or his inferiors. The relationship of peers is less clear and is often a source of confusion and anxiety.

One traditional institution exists alongside the family and is in some instances a substitute for it. This is the relationship of the special friend. Special friendships begin early in life, often in childhood, growing out of fights between boys. Special friendship is recognized only slowly as two men grow to trust each other with their most intimate secrets. Such a friendship is regarded as closer and more dependable than a man's relation with his mother. This relationship is always expressed through daily visits and talks.

This friend is entrusted with a man's burial wishes and instructions for dividing his property after his death. This apparently reduces tensions and arguments among a man's relatives, who will be his heirs. They seek out the friend to determine their kinsman's wishes in these matters at his death.⁴⁵ Special friendship is a lifelong affair,

⁴⁴Ibid.

⁴⁵Ibid., p. 159.

and it is difficult to replace a deceased friend with another. In a country with as many diverse traditions as Nigeria, the systems of social stratifications are varied.

The traditional social structure consisted of freeborn men and slaves. Since the passing of slavery as an institution, all men have absolutely equal rights, including the right of access to a higher status. Some ways of achieving enhanced status are individual and boring about personal prestige, and others result in a shared prestige of the individual's home community. In the past, a man could gain prestige by buying expensive initiations into the societies or into the medicine society. This road to prestige is still followed occasionally, even by the educated when they retire to their home towns after having achieved a degree of prosperity in the cities.⁴⁶

In more recent times, other means of using wealth is that of owning a fine house in the country, provide money for school fees and college tuition for his relatives, and give generously to his own town's development fund. Prestige in the past was gained by having a large market, a famous oracle, or a special important product such as salt. In modern times, this status competition among communities has shifted its emphasis to schools, piped water, electricity and medical centers. Community prestige can be gained through education of native sons, and education funds are maintained in order to send deserving scholars to British and U.S. colleges and universities and Nigerian colleges and universities as well.

⁴⁶Ibid., p. 138.

The curriculum determination of existing societal values and the stressing and implementation of these values in the educational system in Nigeria, and the question of compulsory religious instruction in order to reduce time and alleviate other social ills, is a great concern in relation to a re-examination and improving of the educational standard of the schools to make them relevant to the modern society. New professional roles, the democratic political system and educational opportunities have increased social mobility, whereas the traditional values and principles of social organization in an agrarian economy were still potent forces in resisting change.

Wealth and ownership of land retained their traditional importance as symbols of high social status.⁴⁷ There is widespread statement among observers that Nigerian society is undergoing rapid social changes. The process of change is not uniformly distributed and presently contributes to diversity rather than unity of the society. Uneven social change is superimposed on wide regional differences in culture and economic organization. The Nigerians have vital frontiers which contrast sharply with the traditional areas of high population density and subsistence agriculture. This is more distinctive of Lagos, Port Harcourt, Ibadan, Kano, Calabar which tend to be dominant sources of impressions in Nigerian society.

The need for the Nigerian society is democratic and geared to service not a few but for the betterment of the many should receive

⁴⁷ Ralph Sout, Comparative Education, A Study of Selected National Systems (Flagstaff, Arizona Co., 1967); p. 288.

primary attention. It is the purpose therefore of the Nigerian educational institutions to make the people realize both backward looking and avante garde cultural movements merely decieve and that a truly vital and dynamic culture is necessary.⁴⁸ With much interest in education, the high rate of college and university attendance furnished the nation with educated elites ready to assume roles in the industrialized society.

Raising the literacy level has been the prime objective of educational progress. The development of a mass of individuals highly trained in the field of agriculture and technological fields is the prime concern of the Nigerian government. It is impossible to build a highly developed society unless the people were educated in accordance with the rapid changes in the society.

Thus, the high value placed on labor and the fact that every Nigerian citizen should possess some specialized skill and make some contribution to Nigerian society and culture are given cognizance from pre-school training through the higher echelons of the educational system.

ECONOMIC ASPECTS OF NIGERIA

The economy of Nigeria is based primarily on agriculture and mineral commodities, which provide about three-fifths of national

⁴⁸ Catalina Aguila, A Comparative Study of Objectives in Public Institutions of Higher Education in the U.S. and in the Philippines (Unpublished, Feb., 1971), p. 30.

income. Nigeria is chiefly self-sufficient in food production and she has relied heavily on agricultural exports. Industrial activity contributes only a small percentage of gross national product. It centers on primary extraction and processing of consumer and export goods and includes cement factories, lumber and plywood mills, textile mills, and petroleum refineries.⁴⁹

There is a large petroleum reserve off-shore and in the Mid-western and Rivers States. These are the major sources of foreign exchange. The civil war of 1967-1970 severely strained the country's economic infrastructure and drained foreign exchange reserves. At present it is the oil exports which has improved the balance of payments outlook, but some imports restrictions and exchange controls are still required.

In mid-1971, the country was still engaged in the task of reconstruction and rehabilitation from the material ravages of civil war. It had embarked upon the restoration of political stability and the pursuit of a degree of unity and effective administration that might permit better coordinated progress in economic development, and balanced growth. As recovery and development proceeded, the economy would still derive its basic character from small holder farming, internal trade, and the export of agricultural raw materials.

In the mid-1960's, only five per cent of those gainfully employed were working for wages; some 64 per cent were self-employed;

⁴⁹ Area Handbook for Nigeria, p. 9.

and 39 per cent were unpaid family workers.⁵⁰ As educational opportunities expanded and urban migration increased, unemployment and underemployment became increasingly conspicuous problems. After World War II, when the government operated marketing boards took over, the marketing of agricultural exports, the monopoly of foreign export trading houses was broken.

Since independence, the Nigerian government has also been gradually increasing its control of the banking sector and through the taxation of foreign companies in mining and other sectors, has augmented the country's share of the income from gross domestic products. In 1971 a new increase was negotiated in the government's share of petroleum earnings, which were expected to furnish growing resources of foreign exchange and development financing throughout much of the 1970's. Despite the extension of domestic government control and gradual, but growing progress in the Nigerianization of management and entrepreneurship in banking, commerce and manufacture, the economy remains heavily dependent on the level of activity in the foreign-oriented sectors.

Imports of foods are limited; except for animal proteins and luxury foods. The country is largely self-sufficient in basic foodstuffs. Progress has also been made in the substitution of domestic manufactures for imports of textiles, footwear, clothing, beverages, tobacco, and a number of other consumer goods. The manufacturing sector's share in domestic production has risen. The growth of industry, construction, transport and other forms of economic development has required a

⁵⁰ Ibid., p. 291

mounting volume of imports of capital equipment and intermediate goods.⁵¹

The Nigerian economy is nonetheless judged fundamentally sound by international observers. The natural environment offers a variety of climate favors which produce a diverse range of tropical export crops, and the ratio of agricultural and forest land to population is favorable for the country as a whole. The potential power resources are good and adequately developed, and the transport network, though damaged by the last Biafra-Nigeria civil war, is basically well developed. The pre-existing range of commercially exploitable mineral resources, including coal, tin, columbite, and tantalite, the new rich petroleum discoveries have added a valuable source of income, as well as employment. Nigeria has the largest population in Africa.⁵² The country offers a more extensive domestic market for the development of manufacture than most developing African countries. The country in 1971, with its natural advantages enjoyed a precarious financial stability that was nevertheless admirable in the wake of the demands and disruptions of the civil war and reconstruction.

Agricultural production had been well maintained, and industrial production for the country as a whole had actually expanded during the war years. The main exports in the country include the following: crude oil, cocoa, ground nut (peanut), palm products, rubber, cotton, timber, wood products, and hides and skins.

⁵¹Ibid., p. 292.

⁵²Ibid., p. 293.

Pattern of Growth

Until the 1940's, economic growth in Nigeria was fueled almost entirely by the response of traders and peasant farmers to demand and prices on external markets. The demand for agricultural raw materials on world markets brought important new gains in the country's exchange earnings after World War II. World market prices for the principal exports--cocoa, groundnuts, rubber, and palm products rose dramatically in the late 1940's and early 1950's. The official marketing boards, established in the 1940's, kept the price to the producer well below market prices, so that public revenues were rapidly increased and a large share of the export proceeds were funneled into sections of rapid growth potential.⁵³

The growth of import costs lagged somewhat behind soaring export prices in the late 1940's and early 1950's but by the mid-1950's imports of goods and services began to catch up with exports, and the large payments surpluses decreased. Whereas peasant farming, the dominant sector of economic activity, had utilized few inputs other than increased amounts of land, and labor, the increasing amount of capital investment in sectors of more rapid growth required large imports of machinery, transport equipment, expertise and eventually, intermediate materials for established industry.

In the meantime, government activity had been increasing even more dramatically than export earnings. When the political crisis that preceded the civil war interrupted economic development in the

⁵³Ibid., p. 294.

mid-1960's, the economy was on the threshold of modernization. Domestic resources had been effectively mobilized in the context of the still-limited level of development. There was also considerable concern over urban unemployment, and the steady migration from rural areas to towns, partly as a result of the agricultural income policy embodied in marketing board prices.⁵⁴

The emerging transition from a peasant agricultural economy to a semi-industrialized one was reflected in the changed composition of imports, which in the 1960's were dominated by industrial materials, machinery, and transport equipment rather than by consumer goods as in the past. Improved transport, expanded educational facilities, and mounting internal trade also reflected the trend. The Central Bank of Nigeria had been created in 1958, and banking facilities had been expanded. The growth of aggregate demand from private as well as public sources had been handled without undue inflation except during 1952 and 1953.

The economic position after the civil war ended in January, 1970, was one of moderate financial crisis, and payments abroad were in arrears. Prices had begun to rise significantly in early 1969. The government introduced price control but continuing government spending, pent up demand from the war years, local food shortages, and the need to maintain controls on non-essential imports continued to exert pressure on the internal price and tax arrangement for oil exports promised relief to the treasury. The World Bank Group had

⁵⁴Ibid., p. 285.

granted a U.S. \$80 million loan for general rehabilitation until such time as a pipeline of approved aid projects could be prepared, and the group had not closed the door on further aid negotiations.

The Nigerian national accounts are not very useful for measuring the rate of growth of the economy or the inflationary gap between aggregate demand and available resources. Economic growth, which had been moderate in the 1950's was accelerated during the period up to the outbreak of the civil war.

Government

The role of the government in economic development consists basically of policymaking and allocation of public funds. Government economic policy in Nigeria prior to the civil war was oriented toward a free market, and incentives were established to encourage private investments. In public investment the Nigerian federal and regional governments concentrated their efforts in four areas. First, they invested quite heavily in infrastructive projects, especially transportation and communication facilities, mostly with good economic results.⁵⁵

Second, they undertook four types of agricultural development programs--plantations, tree subsidies, research and extension, and land settlements--with mixed economic success. Thirdly, they spent large amounts, relative to total budget on education that had likely long

⁵⁵ W. Arthur Lewis, Reflections on Nigeria Economic Growth (Paris: Development Center of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, 1967), p. 23.

term benefits, both positive and adverse short-range effects. And finally they participated directly in industrial ventures, with very uneven economic outcomes. The government has constituted the most important source of initiative and most dynamic element in recent Nigerian economic experience.⁵⁶

At the turn of the present century there were few existing avenues for advancement. However, the United States and the British occupation and the accompanying economic growth opened new avenues for social advancement, with the upper class being in a better position than the lower-middle class to capitalize on the opportunity. There is tremendous pressure at present on the government to provide employment opportunities. It is hoped that this pressure will become greater in the future as the result of the population growth which is anticipated to increase to 69 million by 1970.⁵⁷

The Nigerian economy can be evaluated from many different points of view, but agriculture will emerge as its most important sector. About 70 per cent of the gainfully employed are engaged in agricultural production. Farm equipment ranges from primitive land tools to power machinery. Fertilization, crop rotation and conservation practices have shown marked improvement but in some tribes or regions they remain unknown. Problems of land ownership are often recognized and yet agricultural progress is real and continued expansion is assumed.⁵⁸

⁵⁶ Scott R. Pearson, Petroleum and the Nigerian Economy (Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1970), p. 36.

⁵⁷ Ibid., p. 45.

The UNESCO, the United States and the technical assistance program from Britain have contributed much, and generally this aid has been received with gratitude and appreciation. Training abroad for special purposes is vitally important as training in the homeland. Both have much emphasis in the Nigerian program. The broad base for economic growth and social progress is developed at home, through inter-related programs designed to prepare increasing numbers of people to respond to the problems of the present and the demands of the future.

This is not developed in a short span of a particular aid program, but over a period of decades by a number of dedicated persons working in a friendly environment, with a sympathetic government, and for an appreciative agricultural population. In general, the place to study techniques and procedures of tropical agriculture is in the tropics, rather than at an agricultural experiment station in the middle latitudes.

The educational system served to erode the foundations of traditional authority and value systems. Despite the progressive Nigerianization of the teaching staff in elementary, secondary and universities, the system retained its English orientation in curricula, some philosophical attitudes and many aspects of content.⁵⁹

⁵⁹ Sam A. Aluko, "The Economics of Mineral Oil," Nigerian Journal of Economic and Social Studies, VII (July, 1965), pp.209-210.

The economic development problem would seem to involve at one and the same time the improvement of agriculture, the protection and encouragement of forestry, fishing, and mining, and the building up of the modern system of industry and trade. The universities, colleges and schools of all grades are constantly called upon to contribute to the program of economic development.⁶⁰

The recognition given to agriculture, as other industries in the country, has caused the establishment of agricultural schools in many states in the country. Secondly, many Nigerians are sent abroad to study more about agriculture. Due to increased demand of skilled workmen, a number of vocational schools have been approved by the government. The curriculum of these schools are expanded to include technical courses of the collegiate level. Trade schools are also encouraged in all parts of the country.

Vocational secondary schools or trade schools offer the four-year curriculum in arts and trades, agriculture or carpentry. The aim of these schools is to develop semi-skilled craftsmen, good agricultural workers in preparation for job opportunities or self-created employment. The production of a trained citizen worker has always been the aim of vocational and technical education.

In all the technical and vocational schools in the country, the courses offered are all at the national level. Many of the

⁶⁰ Ibid., p. 210.

vocational and technical schools are now converted into trade schools where a combination of courses are being taught.⁶¹

In Lagos, as well as the rest of the states, political and economic relations are impersonal to a degree unknown about a decade ago. Pre-occupation with the welfare of the extended family is still in progress, and the awareness of the community of self-interest and the national interest is increasing. Contributing to the middle class is an intellectual proletariat, the rapidly growing body of college and University graduates which remain politically passive but highly individualistic.

RECENT GROWTH TRENDS IN ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Nigeria initially experienced rapid growth of exports in the first three decades of this century, following the imposition of British colonial rule. Between 1900 and 1929, export value grew sevenfold while export volume increased five times; these increases translate into compounded annual growth rates of seven per cent and five and one-half per cent, respectively.⁶²

This expansion was based on palm produce, rubber, groundnuts, cocoa, and cotton, the same commodities that have been and still remain Nigeria's major agricultural exports. In recent years, the

⁶¹Education in Nigeria, An Educational Information Bulletin (Lagos: National Education, 1969), pp. 14-15.

⁶²Pearson, p. 31.

ratio of value added has been about .15. And it has been estimated that roughly 25 per cent of total agricultural output has been traded internally.

Recent studies by both Helleiner and Lewis evidence some agreement why Nigeria has an economic growth. They state this in these words:

The factors underlying this substantial growth of agricultural exports are coupled. The growth of transportation facilities, and technological changes. But Helleiner sees the farmers' production responses as due primarily to extensive use of previously unused factors, including both land of which Nigeria has had and still has an abundant supply in most areas, and labor from a growing population and decreased leisure, though production has increased with some crops.⁶³

Technological improvement has increased productivity in cocoa, cotton and palm products and until more recently, groundnuts (peanuts). Even though there is some advancement in some fields of economic concern, the large and increasing amount of urban unemployment still exists. The problem has been exacerbated by the migration into the cities of semi-educated young people who disdain rural employment. This is, of course, partly the result of the heavy emphasis that southern Nigerian state governments have placed on primary education at the expense of secondary education.

Currently the unemployment is alleviated by military employment. It is a general fact that the long-run solution to urban employment will most easily be found in expansion of the services sector.

⁶³Ibid., p. 33.

This expansion must be based on accelerated growth of Nigeria's prime movers; petroleum exports, agricultural exports and manufacturing.⁶⁴

Nigeria faces many of the general unresolved questions of development that confront any low income economy. These include allocational questions concerning the long and the short run, direct versus indirect assistance to productive sectors, domestic or foreign ownership, the need for physical plant as well as health and educational facilities, and the proper degree of government intervention in industrialization. Most important, answers to these questions must be found within a framework of potential political instability and regional conflicts.⁶⁵

PUBLIC INVOLVEMENT IN NIGERIAN ECONOMY

The public sector includes the federal government, the twelve state governments, about twenty corporations, both federal and state, and more than one hundred local authorities.⁶⁶ The respective taxation powers of the federal and state governments are clearly distinguished under the constitution. The states may levy and collect personal income taxes, sales taxes, and a variety of such other taxes as the cattle tax and the betting tax.

The government has the exclusive power to impose and collect customs and excise duties; company taxes, including the petroleum profits tax; and mining royalties and rents. The allocation of fiscal

⁶⁴Ibid., p. 38.

⁶⁵Ibid., p. 38.

⁶⁶Area Handbook, p. 300.

revenues between the federal government and the states was a very active political issue in the 1960's, and it is to be resolved by a constituent assembly that the Federal government plans to convene before 1976.⁶⁷

There is a new census planned for 1973, which will affect the allocation among states of funds from the distributive pool. It is firmly believed that revenues from the petroleum industry (company taxes, royalties, and rents) are expected to constitute more than fifty per cent of total federal and state revenues combined; their allocation may be one of the more controversial questions to be decided. Another area that provides the government with revenues are the agricultural marketing boards.⁶⁸

Until 1955, they were directly responsible for research and development through compulsory loans and tax funds. Between 1947 and 1962, the estimated proportion of producer income from agricultural exports siphoned off by taxes and marketing board surpluses ranged between twenty-one and thirty-two per cent. The continued heavy dependence on foreign trade made the government's revenue somewhat volatile and subject to fluctuations in business cycle in industrial countries or to speculative movements on commodity exchanges. Since 1960, the government revenues have been more exposed to the vicissitudes of export markets.⁶⁹

The growing importance of petroleum profits tax and, to a lesser extent, of other company taxes had begun to modify the structure

⁶⁷Ibid.

⁶⁸Ibid., p. 304.

⁶⁹Ibid.

of federal revenues in favor of direct taxes by the beginning of 1970. Further growth in petroleum revenues was expected through 1976. As a result of the new price agreement concluded with the oil companies in 1971, the government's total revenue from the petroleum sector in fiscal 1971-1972 was expected to be as high as NL340 million (1 Nigerian pound equals U.S. \$2.80).

Although agriculture has provided the foundation of the country's internal economy and foreign trade, both industry and commerce have shown remarkable vitality. If mining is included in the industrial sector, the rapid growth of petroleum production dominates the structure of output and export trade. Even if mining is excluded, manufacturing and construction showed the most rapid rate of economic growth from 1956 to the outbreak of the civil war in 1967, and their basic strength and resilience were still more effectively demonstrated during the war.⁷⁰

Foreign owned firms have been more prominent in commerce and industry, particularly in mining than in agriculture, but indigenous entrepreneurs proliferate in both sectors and are noted for their initiative and response to economic growth or incentive. The rapid recognition of market opportunities that has characterized the country's small holder exporters is likewise characteristic of

⁷⁰ Nigerian Human Resource Development and Utilization (New York: Education and World Affairs, 1967), p. 15.

entrepreneurous activity in economics and manufacture, who have also shown a considerably greater inclination to adopt profitable innovations.⁷¹

The government's program of Nigerianization in larger scale industry and commerce has made steady progress, though much remains to be done. Among developing countries, Nigeria has a relatively good supply of managerial staff and other high level manpower, although there remains a sizeable gap between requirements and availabilities, particularly in the private sector.

In the drive for more sophisticated economic development, the country has offered liberal incentives to private foreign investment and has encouraged the exchange of expertise and technical assistance. Although some of the heavier industries planned for the future will require large-scale government participation, private initiative (domestic and foreign) will continue to predominate in most sectors of industry and commerce.⁷²

⁷¹ Economic Growth of Nigeria: Problems and Prospects, Vol. 10 (Washington, D.C.: International Bank for Reconstruction and Development and International Development Association, Nov., 1965). (Mimeographed.)

⁷² Nigerian Human Resource Development and Utilization, p. 35.

CHAPTER III

EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

Historical Background of American Education

The history of American education is valuable in its own right as a subject of study. As the history of the human race or the history of a particular civilization, it provides insights and perspectives for each individual as a participant and recipient of a culture. It also offers insight and perspective for students of education. The study of a nation's educational history contributes to the loyalty and appreciation of a citizen for his homeland, so a knowledge of educational history builds professional loyalty and commitment among teachers and educators.⁷³

In order to understand contemporary issues, the students of professional education must be aware of how they developed. Instead of anchoring themselves securely to the safety of finished events, they should use the past as a means of interpreting the present and as an instrument for shaping the future. A total program of teacher education must concern itself with current problems. It is necessary for education students to examine contemporary philosophies, social views, theories, methods, curriculum, organization, psychology and

⁷³ Gerald Gutek, A History Introduction to American Education (New York: Thomas Crowell Company, 1969), p. 1.

administration, since these are the working tools of the educational practitioner and theorist. Educators must think in terms of the future in order to prepare the society to cope with whatever events and issues may develop to affect it.

The history of American education is a valuable tool in assessing the culture for its influence on the course of education, and education for its influence on the course of the culture. In Experience and Education, John Dewey discussed the close relationship between the issues and problems of contemporary life and the past.

The institution and customs that exist in the present and that gave rise to present social ills and dislocations did not arise overnight. They have a long history behind them. Attempts to deal with them simply on the basis of what is obvious in the present is bound to result in adoption of superficial measures which in the end will only render existing problems more acute and more difficult to solve.⁷⁴

The American historical experience has been characterized by profound changes which have transferred the original simple, rural, agrarian social order into a highly complex, urban, and industrialized technological civilization. The ramifications of this transformation have affect all facets of American life--religious, economic, social, political. In fact, it has been a continuing process, one that is still producing great changes in American life. As part of the fluid social order the schools, too, have been profoundly affected. In the same way that a static and stratified society is alien to the American tradition, the idea of a rigid, closed school system and curriculum

⁷⁴ Gutek, p. 6.

are also alien to the American educational experience.⁷⁵

The Colonial Period

The history of American education begins with the efforts of the English colonists to recreate in the New World the school system they had known before. The colonists' schools reflected their desire to stay and conquer the wilderness. The patterns of settlement in North America varied according to geographical, climate, and topographical conditions. Along with these diverse patterns, variations also followed in the life style of the different colonial regions. For example, New England in its Puritan conformity, the Middle Atlantic colonies in their pluralism, and the South in its plantations, all reflected the tendency to develop unique characteristics, as the common English experience was altered by the American environment.

The variations in educational processes and institutions which began to mark these regions of settlement likewise reflected the imprint of the new environment. Colonial education was influenced greatly by the cultural heritage that the colonists brought with them from Europe. To understand their ideas about their historical background, it is necessary to examine some of the precedents that existed in Europe.

The Renaissance humanism of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries stressed the classical forms and traditions and the Greek and Latin

⁷⁵Ibid., p. 6.

languages as marks of the educated man.⁷⁶ Linked with this classical humanism was a strong concern with religion, which was part of the heritage of the Protestant Reformation and Catholic Counter-Reformation. At that time, the religious element emphasized doctrinal education. Both the intellectual inheritance and the commercial revolution made their impact upon colonial education.

The Latin grammar school continued the emphasis on classical education, while the vernacular schools reflected the demands of doctrinal conformity and basic literacy. As the commercial classes grew in numbers and in importance, they demanded a more utilitarian education. Although all of the English colonies in North America shared the tradition of European intellectual and commercial life, certain differences unique to each region developed early in the New England colonies, the Middle colonies and the Southern colonies.

New England

The New England colonies were settled primarily by the Puritans, who based their lives and their beliefs upon the theological doctrines. Their educational orientation was also influenced heavily by the religious Reformer, John Calvin.⁷⁷ New England colonial education emphasized the conservative aspect of its role by transmitting a heritage which allowed little room for change. Education of that period also took pains to convey the particular world-view of Calvinist theology. Another important feature of New England colonial education

⁷⁶ Ibid., p. 9.

⁷⁷ Ibid., p. 10.

was the close relationship of Church, state and school. When the first schools were established they were considered adjuncts of the Church-State. This was in sharp contrast to the later view that the Church and the state should function separately.⁷⁸

Colonial South

The climate favored the growing of staple subtropical crops such as tobacco, rice, sugar, and later cotton; the large plantation came to dominate the Southern landscape. The society that grew up around the plantation was an agricultural one, supported by a growing number of Negro slaves. Formal education in the South had not been considered, except for tutoring provided for the upper-class children of plantation society. Since the Southern social order lacked opportunities for community life, it did not develop a well defined system of formal education.

The English Poor Law of 1601 had required training for the dependent poor. And because of this, the colonists of Virginia and North Carolina made it compulsory for orphans and pauper children to be apprenticed.⁷⁹ Another development of more formal education in the South was the establishment of various private denominational schools. These denominational or charity schools were supported by private endowments or gifts. As was the case in England, and the other North American colonies, higher education in the South was restricted to the sons of the upper-class.⁸⁰ Some members of this

⁷⁸Ibid., p. 11.

⁷⁹Ibid., p. 18.

⁸⁰Ibid.

elite were sent to England for further education. In 1693, William and Mary College was established in Virginia to educate the ministry of the Anglican Church. In 1779, the college was reorganized, and the scope of the curriculum was broadened to include natural philosophy, mathematics, law, medicine, moral philosophy, fine arts, and modern languages.⁸¹

For most of the population in the South, colonial education was informal rather than formal. Because of population distribution and economic system, such formal education as did exist was highly aristocratic and confined to the elite group of white plantation owners. Educational progress in the South lagged behind that of New England because of the lack of a sense of community goals comparable to the religious orientation in New England.

The Middle Atlantic Colonies

The middle Atlantic colonies comprised an extremely pluralistic society. Religious pluralism was evidence by such diverse sects as Dutch Reformed, Lutheran, Roman Catholic and Jewish. Because of the diverse traditions, languages, and religions, there was no common fund of shared experience upon which to build a required or extensive educational enterprise. Conflicting motives and goals also retarded the growth of institutional patterns of formal education.

Although certain features were unique to each colonial region, the colonists also shared this early stage of American educational

⁸¹Ibid., p. 19.

experience in many ways. Church and school were intimately connected. The religious influence was strong in all areas where the school served as a formal instructional agency, and much of the educational content was religious.⁸² The American colonial experience consisted of the reconstruction of imported English institutions in light of the New World environment. When the American colonists rose in rebellion against England, they were beginning to come to grips with the realities of this new environment.

Revolutionary Period

Benjamin Franklin and Thomas Jefferson were the foremost among those who sought to assess the condition of education and plan the reforms needed to assure the continuing existence of the United States as a sovereign and independent nation. While the colonial forms of education persisted into the republican era, there was much theorizing over the institutional organization and curricular content that education should adopt as a means of introducing people to a new government and cultural experience.⁸³

The educational experiments created a wider interest in education and led many individuals to recognize the need for public education. many of the proposals formulated during the early republican era were never actually carried out. The educational theories of such men as Benjamin Rush, Robert Coram, Samuel Knox, and Samuel Smith did contribute to the nineteenth century development of the common school.

⁸² Ibid.

⁸³ Bernard Bailly, Education in the Forming of American Society. (Chapel Hill: North Carolina University, 1960), p. 35.

Allen O. Hansen, in Liberalism and American Education in the Eighteenth Century, 1926, has analyzed those plans for a national system of education.⁸⁴ As the revolution swept away the old political order, so a revolutionary system of education could likewise remove anti-science prejudices from the American mind. Benjamin Rush, urging a unique brand of education that would reinforce the principle of patriotism, suggested that the federal government should set up an educational structure that would remain flexible enough to absorb constant modifications.

Samuel Smith saw education as providing a means of social control. He believed that the United States had a mission to serve as the model of democracy for the rest of the world. It was generally agreed among the people that a national system of education should be used to establish and promote a distinctive American culture, and that an educational commitment to the scientific attitude would promote progress. In 1749, Franklin proposed a curriculum for the education of youths. The proposed curriculum encompassed many subjects and resembled the modern comprehensive high school. English grammar, classics, composition, rhetoric, and public speaking were a part of language studies; but the important distinction was that classes were to be conducted in English, the vernacular of trade and daily life, rather than in Latin. Utilization crafts were also included:

⁸⁴ Allen O. Hansen, Liberalism and American Education in the Eighteenth Century (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1926), p. 40.

carpentry, shipbuilding, engraving, printing, painting, cabinetmaking, carving, and gardening.⁸⁵

Mathematics was to be offered as a practical subject rather than a strictly theoretical study. Mathematical studies included arithmetic, geometry, astronomy and accounting. History was to supply students with exemplars or models based upon the lives of famous historical figures. Greek, Roman, English, and colonial history were offered, with emphasis on the moral lessons they supplied. Other subjects included in the curriculum were natural science, agriculture, technology, physical education and character education.

Franklin's plan was never actually put into practice. Its enriched curriculum, responsive as it was to the needs of the rising commercial class, was a vast improvement over the narrow course of studies of the Latin grammar school. But it remained primarily an impressive program of subjects that were not anauged into a clearly logical or graduated curriculum. The proposals of Franklin, Jefferson, and others indicated that the leaders of the American Revolution recognized the importance of education as a means of preparing citizens for the responsibilities of democratic self-government.

These leaders also knew that the individual's knowledge and understanding were directly related to the harmony and prosperity of the state. Jefferson's proposal for the diffusion of knowledge to the general populace contributed to the democratic concept of the

⁸⁵Ibid., p. 55.

common school that was articulated by Horace Mann in the nineteenth century. During this particular century, both the elementary curriculum of the public common school and the secondary curriculum of the private academic schools came to reflect the practical goals of American life.⁸⁶ Education served to equalize and harmonize the conflicting interests of various ethnic and religious groups. It was also an instrument of social integration. The practical aspects of education became apparent in the provisions for training in the various professions and vocations. As denominational control over education gradually diminished, the American school integrated a nonsectarian, commonly accepted system of values.

Baillyn underlined the fact that education, or the social process of directed learning, is both a mirror and a catalyst: "Education not only reflects and adjusts to society; once formed, it turns back upon it and acts upon it." In the colonial era, American education was transformed. It became an instrument of radical social change, "a powerful internal accelerator" which released the energies of individuals and groups, and gave the young a lead time in new ideas gained from the immediate educational environment away from the control of family elders. Secondly, American education played a major role in shaping the national character and personality which became individualistic, independent, and frontier-like.⁸⁷

⁸⁶Guttek, p. 36.

⁸⁷Baillyn, pp. 14-18.

One of the leaders in promoting acceptance of the common school was the educational statesman, Horace Mann. Devoted to the democratic ethic, he saw public, common schooling as an instrument of the American republic. An intimate relationship existed between liberty-self-government, and universal education; political and social liberties could be secure only if men were educated enough to make intelligent decisions. The common school was to serve as a school of democracy, a center of civic education, and a training-ground for responsible public service.⁸⁸

The common school movement represented a significant stage in the development of the American public school system. The solid establishment of basic elementary, common school education made possible the structure known as the American Educational Ladder.

As a result of the pioneering work of Mann and Barnard, taxation for the support of public schools was enacted into law by various state legislatures. The concept and realization of the common school in America owes much to the theories and practice of such educational statesmen as Horace Mann and Henry Barnard.⁸⁹ Schools in the colonial period were not only widely authorized by the civil government, but they were also dominantly religious in purpose and content. The revolutionary nature of American development and its distinctive, national style of life and education have foundations in these traits.⁹⁰

⁸⁸Frank C. Foster, "Horace Mann as Philosopher," Educational Theory X (January, 1960), p. 25.

⁸⁹Ibid., p. 39.

⁹⁰Arthur H. Moehlman, Comparative Educational Systems (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., Feb. 1968), p. 75.

American mobility has been both geographical and cultural. The westward movement of the frontier settlement, the booming growth of cities, the far voyaging of whalers, clippers, jet planes and space rockets, and the automobile-centered tempo of life are aspects of this geographical mobility. Cultural mobility has been demonstrated in the use of universal education as an instrument of self-improvement and social advance. Everyone acquires a greater chance to determine his own future. American productivity has involved an unusual combination of scientific experimentation and technological innovation to create an economy of abundance and an affluent society. The continuing American Revolution was based above all upon an evolving idealism, transcendental and utilitarian, which provided a humanitarian orientation. The Christian, Hebraic and Hellenic ethical traditions were carried forward by the Americans in the New World in novel indigenous patterns. The trial of ethical ideals, economic productivity and cultural mobility in the broadest sense were the catalysts in "The Continuing American Revolution."

The second or formative period, in the nineteenth century, witnesses the accelerating growth of an indigenous American culture. Gazi and Myers reported:

The key note of the century of democratic education was "more education for more people." By 1900, the great majority of children aged six to thirteen were in elementary schools; by 1960, over ninety-five per cent were in attendance. Universal elementary schooling for all children had been won. By 1900, about ten per cent of the children aged fourteen to seventeen were actually in secondary schools; in 1930, more than fifty per cent were attending. This comes close to universal secondary education. In 1760, the average colonist may have had two or three years of schooling; by 1960, the average American had ten

to eleven years of schooling and will probably go to twelve or even to fourteen by 1974.⁹¹

Toward the end of the period, a distinctly American strategy of education began to take shape. The district or community elementary school developed in New England. The beginnings of the American high school, which was to supersede the Latin grammar school, appeared in Benjamin Franklin's proposals in 1749 offering an academy with a realistic curriculum. The American four year arts college developed as a residential college with courses in the classics and natural philosophy and produced leaders such as Jefferson, Madison, and John Adams.

According to Baillyn, he underlined the fact that "Education not only reflects and adjusts to society; once formed, it turns back upon it and acts upon it." In the colonial period, American education was transformed. First of all it became an instrument of radical social change, "a powerful internal acceleration which released the energies of individuals and groups, and gave the young a lead time in new ideas gained from the immediate educational environment away from the control of family elders." Secondly, American education played a major role in shaping the national character and personality which became individualistic, independent, and frontier-like.⁹² The United States won its freedom from colonial control and began its drive toward the dynamics of mass production, and economy of abundance, and equal access to educational opportunities.

⁹¹Kalili Gazi and James E. Myers, Teaching in American Culture (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1968), p. 22.

⁹²Aguila, p. 45.

From the 1770's, Americans planned, built, changed, argued and fought over the kinds of free institutions that should replace colonial rule. One of these institutions was education. As they set up and operated a republican form of government dedicated to equality, democracy and freedom, they found that they needed an educational system appropriate to such a government. James Madison, Father of the Constitution and author of the Bill of Rights, put it in this way:

A popular government without popular information or the means of acquiring it, is but a prologue to a farce or tragedy or perhaps both. Knowledge forever governs ignorance; and a people who mean to be their own governors must arm themselves with the power which knowledge gives.⁹³

The purpose of general education as Thomas Jefferson wrote was to enable every man to judge for himself what will secure or endanger his freedom. Enunciated in the early years of the Republic, this argument for public education became rooted in the American tradition.

The creation of an educational system based on the principle of equality of opportunities was even more widely discussed in the United States before the end of the eighteenth century.⁹⁴

The War of Independence marked a break in America's cultural as well as political ties with England. The educational pattern in the United States is distinctive, having evolved from European types

⁹³U.S. Office of Education, Expressions by Builders of American Democracy, Bulletin, 1940, No. 10 (Washington, D.C: 1941), p. 215.

⁹⁴Hansen, p. 105.

and having been adapted to a unique social climate, its distinctive characteristic is its ability to accommodate all classes of individuals and to serve multiple purposes. It operates on the premise that each child has a right to determine his own future calling; and to this and the necessity of making a decision is not forced upon him until he has the judgment and understanding necessary to make a wise decision. But it is assumed that all decisions will be satisfactory. Programs of study, therefore, are kept general in order to permit ready transfer if a mistake is discovered. It is felt that these conditions are possible only in comprehensive institutions, schools that are designed to offer many programs and to accomodate all individuals of a given age, each with his unique abilities, interests and aspirations.⁹⁵

Many educational leaders from other lands have influenced education in the United States. These pioneers are Johann Amos Comenius, J.J. Rousseau, J.H. Pestalozzi, J.F. Hebart, F. Froebal and many others. The following Americans, Benjamin Franklin, Henry Barnard, Horrace Mann, and many others have also contributed to the Americanization of education. The concept of equality influenced not only the political, social and economic spheres of society, but also the educational realm. The concept strengthened the notion that education should be free, that it be publicly controlled and supported, that it be nonsectarian and that women have opportunities for education equal with men.

⁹⁵T.N. Thut and Don Adams, Educational Patterns in Contemporary Societies (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1964), p. 240.

Educational Period: 1787-1900

The key note of the century of democratic education was "more education for more people." By nineteen hundred, the great majority of children aged six to thirteen were in elementary schools; by 1960 over ninety-five per cent were in attendance. Universal elementary schooling for all children had been won. By 1900, about ten per cent of the children aged fourteen to seventeen were actually in secondary schools. In 1930, more than fifty per cent attended and by 1960, nearly ninety per cent were attending. This comes close to universal secondary education. In 1760, the average colonist may have had two to three years of schooling. By 1960, the average American had ten to eleven years of schooling. The average years of schooling will probably go to twelve or even to fourteen by 1974.⁹⁶

The application of the steam engine to manufacturing, mining and transportation in a system of mass production came in the fundamental shift. The frontiers of settlement first lumbered, then raced westward across the continent with the aid of new power tools and the mass production of the steel plow, wire fence, windmill, repeating rifles, and six shooters. The teachers in the growing system of indigenous universal education helped to weld together many different cultures. An American system of universal education was gradually formed with an eight-year elementary school, a four-year high school and a four-year college or university.

⁹⁶Gazi and Myers, p. 22.

Although a national university was not established, the early period following independence witnessed an enthusiasm for founding colleges. Private colleges continued to function, and numerous state colleges were chartered in the West and South as well. These early educational centers were located in small towns. Many college preparatory programs were lacking and the colleges often had to maintain their own secondary departments. Libraries, staff, and facilities were weak. The relationship between state legislatures and the state colleges was poor. The University of Virginia was one of the first major institutions to deviate in organization, control and curriculum from the pattern found in the private colonial colleges. The University of Virginia exemplified several factors typical of the state university: First, public control and support; second, a scientific rather than a classical curriculum; third, student election of subjects rather than a classical curriculum; third, student election of subjects rather than a prescribed course of study; fourth, a high level of instruction; fifth, nonsectarianism.⁹⁷ Many of these factors could be found to a certain degree in most of the state-established and maintained universities such as Indiana, founded in 1820, Michigan, 1837, Wisconsin, 1848, and many others prior to the Civil War.

⁹⁷ John S. Brubacher, "A Century of the State University," A Century for Higher Education: Classical Citadel to Collegiate Colossus, ed. by William Brickman and Stanley Lehner (New York: Society for the Advancement of Education, 1962), pp. 70-71.

Objectives in American Education

These paragraphs are designed to provide a sound historical foundation upon which to base judgments about objectives of American education. It is addressed not only to prospective students in education, but also to all the members of the educational profession. The present practices and all proposals for the future rest upon some interpretations of the past. Educational policies and decisions look both forward and backward. Therefore, it is an indispensable element in evaluating the objectives of American education to look to the past as well as the present.

In the first period, 1842-76, the objectives concerned with "moral development," "liberal education," and "mental development." Over the years, the concern for these objectives declined. In the 1909-21 period, 39 per cent of the literature was concerned with moral development, 8 per cent with liberal education; and by 1956-1960, the number of articles concerned with these areas had dropped to 27 per cent and 19 per cent respectively with the topic "mental discipline" disappearing altogether. These changes indicate a long term decline of the traditional liberal arts objectives of American education, even though there are periodic interests in returning these goals to prominence.

In place of these de-emphasized or disappearing objectives, there has been a long term increase in the mention of "civic and social responsibility" from seven per cent in the earliest period to 13 per cent in the two latest periods. The traditional objectives

or aims of American education are being replaced by new or redefined objectives in the literature of higher education. Between 1956-1960, there was a marked increase in the emphasis upon the "development of the individual as a person, and upon scholarly aims and ambitions." At the same time these purposes have developed new or revived prominence; the training for life's needs and adjustments to the modern world make up less than two per cent of the total mentioned in 1960-1965.

From 1925-39, the new emphasis was on the "development of a philosophy," "training of the emotions," "adjustment to the modern world," and the "development of the individual as a person." After World War II, there was an increase in the objectives of education. The newly stated purpose of "academic freedom for inquiry, study and research" more than doubled after the time of the McCarthy investigations. In conclusion, certain generalizations can be made about the objectives of American education. Between 1842-1876, the major objectives were "morality and discipline." From 1901-21, the importance of "mental discipline" gave way to the purpose of developing "civic and social responsibility." In the years 1925-1939, there was a radical shift from "moral and religious development" and "liberal education" was replaced by the "training for life's daily needs," and "adjustment to the modern world," and the "development of the individual as a person."

Today, there is a varied emphasis on the aims of education. General education, as education for an informed responsible life in the society, has chiefly to do with the question of common standards

and common purposes. Education seeks to help young people fulfill the unique, particular function in life which it is in them to fulfill, and fit them, so far as it can, for those common spheres which, as citizens and heirs of a joint culture, they will share with others.⁹⁸

The objective of American education can, therefore, be wholly devoted neither to tradition nor to experiment, neither to the belief that the ideal in itself is enough, nor to the view that means are valuable apart from the ideal. It must uphold at the same time tradition and experimentation. Since the objectives of American education have changed from 1842-1960, this may be described as dynamic rather than static, and subject to creation and consolidation depending upon the needs and the influence of the times. Yet this flexibility is not necessarily change, and redefinition is the solid core of continuing purpose which is directed to the intellectual, moral and social responsibilities of the American Education.

THE SOCIAL ASPECTS OF THE AMERICANS

An abundant and increasing supply of highly educated men and women have become the absolute prerequisite of any society and economic development in the world of today. It is rapidly becoming a condition of national survival. Society must be an educated society to "progress, to grow, even to survive."

⁹⁸ Harvard Committee, General Education in a Free Society (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1945), p. 4.

In every city, small town and large city throughout the United States, indeed throughout the whole of society where men associate one with another, certain individuals are assessed a higher prestige order than others. There are those who are looked down upon. The particular value system of a given society will determine who is to be granted what order of prestige rank. For example, an individual in the Belgian Congo may be given a very high prestige rank by his fellows, but in a society such as the United States, his prestige rank may be very low. Prestige differences exist as long as some individuals recognize the right of others to claim preference and to feel compelled by group norms to grant it.⁹⁹ Social hierarchies exist in many specific activities such as clubs, informal play groups, and so forth. More generalized social hierarchies exist in the United States. These have been labeled as class and caste. Social class as defined by Warner is a hierarchy of social orders or groups, more or less hereditary, but with provisions for movement up and down the ladder, in which the different orders are endowed, in unequal degree, with rights and privileges, obligations and duties, in accordance with their position in the social scale.

At present in the United States, a closely allied problem is the "caste system." Although "caste" in many respects is similar to "class," there are important differences. Warner distinguishes between

⁹⁹Thomas M. Weiss, Scientific Foundations of Education (Dubuque, Iowa: William Brown Co., Publishers, 1964), p. 163.

class and caste by saying: "The rules of caste demand that an individual be born, live and die in one caste." Social mobility in a class system permits an individual, during his lifetime, to move up or down through several social strata. A man may be born lower class, but in time climb into the upper ranges of society, although ordinarily a person stays in the class into which he was born.¹⁰⁰

Recent scientific studies of social class in several regions of the United States demonstrate that it is a major determinant of individual decisions and social actions; that every major area of American life is directly and indirectly influenced by class order, and that the major decisions of most individuals are partly controlled by class order. To act intelligently and know consciously how this basic factor in American life affects individuals and society is essential and necessary in order to understand how it works, and what it does to the lives and personalities who live in it. Most democratic institutions, including schools, churches, business organizations, government, and even family life are modeled by its all pervading and exceedingly subtle but powerful influence.¹⁰¹

When the United States won independence from Great Britain, the scientific knowledge or method was hardly known. Industrialization was yet to be developed. The hold of medieval authority was strong within the minds of the early settlers. A rigid social structure

¹⁰⁰ William Lloyd Warner and Paul S. Lunt, The Social Life of a Modern Community (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1941), p. 82.

¹⁰¹ Ibid.

was stressed in the autocratic governments of the day, and unconsciously, foisted upon the new nation, not within the bounds of the Federal Constitution, but within the minds of men who lived almost unknowingly, by the doctrine of authority. Now, man is living in an atomic age, at a time when his capabilities for controlling the universe are almost unlimited. Sociologists usually refer to six class divisions in the American social system: the upper-upper; the lower-upper; the upper-middle; the lower-middle; the upper-lower; and the lower-lower.

The factors which determine social class in America are status factors primarily, such as the following: Amount and source of income; vocation; family background; community activities; and residential location and type. American community activities are unique with respect to the distribution of their members in a present social class structure. Extreme variance exists from community to community with respect to the proportion of the people within the different classes. The upper-upper and lower-upper classes consist of wealthy and socially prominent families. The distinguishing feature within the upperclass is that the lower-upper class consists of the newest members of the class, whereas the upper-upper class is made up of established social register families of long standing. The upper-middle class members are professional men, people and businessmen and white-collar workers. The upper-lower class is the largest group in the American class system and consists of skilled and unskilled workers. The lower-lower class is often looked down upon by the other classes and consists of manual laborers, migrant workers and many of those unemployed.

Various studies have been conducted in which the facets of social stratification were examined. The studies revealed a number of crucial points, some of which are as follows: The degree of social stratification varies considerably in different communities; community size is among the important variables affecting the number of classes to be found. On the basis of a number of studies, it seems as if there tends to be fewer classes in small towns than in large cities. In a town of less than 1,000 people, two or three distinct social classes may be found. Whereas, in a large town (ranging in size up to about twenty thousand inhabitants) each of three distinct social classes can be subdivided at least once, making six distinct social classes. The meager evidence available for large cities indicates that a similar pattern holds there, too. Secondly, social class lines seem to be more distinct in the older, more stabilized population centers in the United States. One would expect to find more distinct class lines in the East than in the West. Social class in the United States is essentially of prestige order. Among the many variables which are important in determining one's prestige or style of life are house-type, dwelling area, amount and source of income, education and occupation.

Teachers in the United States represent and uphold middle class values. These values are somewhat different from the values held by more than one-half of the American youth. The teacher cannot assume that children will bring to school values which are consistent with his own. It is contended that an important function of the schools should be to assist students to acquire these values. A knowledge

of the social order is imperative for those who would teach boys and girls. The student must remember that any study of social interactions of men must be incomplete and at a "high" level of abstraction. Social stratification as it exists today in America is not compatible with the ideal of equal opportunity for all. Since a classless society does not exist, one must accept the democratic ideal for what it is, a distant goal toward which to work. As long as the public schools stay free and open to all, regardless of one's social station, and as long as one's prestige rank is based somewhat upon merit, some degree of equality of opportunity will continue to exist.

One of the most prominent avenues of social mobility in American society has been education. In earlier periods, education was limited to an elite socio-economic group. As democracy became more and more important as a social and political form, the need to educate the larger segment of the population was acknowledged. At first, the idea of mass education was religious in purpose protecting the soul and preparing the children for Heaven. The move toward education at all levels of society was mainly a recognition of social and political necessity. This tended to offer the concept of education as something worthy only of leisure classes. Practical education, public schools, compulsory attendance laws, and related popular education movements gained; the schools became a major force in social mobility. The proportion of students (from other than the upper-class) now enrolled in high school and college are from working class homes rather than from upper-class homes. Thus, a larger number of working class people in society are involved in the upward mobility chase.

There is a study of social class in the United States as it affects the school and relates to the problems of poverty, deprivation, and alienation. The characteristics and dynamics of social class are a valuable study for persons interested in education and society. It is a general belief that, it is through the avenue of education that many people are able to advance on the social scale. If the child from even the most impoverished environment can improve his life chances and style of living through education, it would seem as if the public schools do play a key role in mitigating class and caste differences. Within the reality of such class structure, much of the meaning of the American ideal of equality would center in equality of opportunity, and at least one aspect of such equality would be the opportunity to move from one of these levels to another. The researchers have finally suggested that through such instruments as education, marriage, money or changes in occupation, an individual or a family may move from one class to another. Such movement may be either upward or downward on the social ladder.

American society has sought to preserve the merits of their earlier forms of values. They have also attempted to include basic information about the actual development of school practices. One of these characteristics is the cultural approach to the study of education. Recent developments in the social sciences have stressed the importance of the concept of culture. The distinctive way of life of a society, developed in the traditions of the past and living on in the institutions, ideas, beliefs, and customs of the people is summed

up in the term "culture." If Americans are to understand and be able to deal with the problems of education, they need to understand the culture in which education operates and to which it contributes.¹⁰² The society rests upon a vast body of knowledge and insight and cherishes a heritage of transmitting it, enriched from one generation to another.

In conclusion, the social structure of the United States is changing in the direction of increasing the proportion of middle-class people, and decreasing the proportion in the lower reaches of the social scale. There is an expansion of middle-class ideology throughout the American society, with an expansion of high school graduates and college attendance, which are middle-class characteristics. The American people must ultimately determine the social policy expressed in value judgment, in legal enactments, and in financial deeds that will shape the role of education in the United States. American education has greatly encouraged social mobility by opening careers to talented students regardless of their social position.¹⁰³

In this situation, the educational system is run by middle-class people with middle-class standards, tempered by some understanding of the fact that working class values and aspirations, as well as habits, are enough different from those of the middle-class to make educational adaptations desirable. These adaptations take

¹⁰² Robert F. Butts, History of Education in American Culture (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1953), p. 5.

¹⁰³ G.L. Brook, The Modern University (Great Britain: Tombridge Press, 1965), p. 25.

the form of encouraging and motivating the brighter lower-class student to aspire to middle-class status by means of education. Thus, the schools give educational and, thereby, economic and cultural opportunity to large numbers of students and play an essential part in keeping the social structure fluid. At the same time there are some tendencies toward hardening of the social structure and toward more rigid stratification. These are very common in metropolitan areas. Here there are some crucial problems for educational policy-makers. They can work against the forces that make for stratification and rigidity, or they can go along with these forces, often not aware that they are doing so. Under the present conditions of economic growth, it appears that the class structure will remain open and fluid, and the tendencies toward stratification and rigidity can be successfully controlled if educators understand the social forces which are influencing the society and act wisely with respect to them.¹⁰⁴ And finally, the World War II, the Cold War, and the Korean War spawned alarm concerning the effectiveness of American education, and the American society responded by calling for overhaul of the educational system. The post-sputnik period has accommodated societal demands of curricular improvement and many avenues of reform have been selected. Many of these reforms are carefully made while others have fallen away because of the dictates of the society.

¹⁰⁴James A. Johnson, et. al., Foundations of American Education (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1969), p. 46.

ECONOMIC ASPECTS IN THE UNITED STATES

The contributions of Benjamin Rush, Thomas Jefferson and other representatives of the Enlightenment formulated ambitious plans, local, state and national, far in advance of their day. The eighteenth century may be viewed as sowing seeds which only the fertile soil and more favorable climate of a later period would permit to germinate. In the nineteenth century, it was such a period, with its revolutionary developments in economic and social relationships and its steady progress from a society predominantly agricultural and rural into one increasingly industrial and urban.

Eighteenth century America was predominantly small towns and rural areas. Trade and commerce flourished in the Middle Colonies and in New England, but not in the corporate form it was later to assume, with the result that relationships between employer and employee, customer and owner, were still person to person.¹⁰⁵ In this period, also, manufacturing was in its infancy, and the concept was to emphasize man's "struggle for existence," the "survival of the fittest," and the virtues of "rugged individualism." Victory in the American Revolution had removed legal barriers to settlements west of the mountains, with the result that from the seaboard states as well as from abroad there began a westward movement of population that neither prosperity nor adversity could stop.

¹⁰⁵ V.T. Thayer, Formative Ideas in American Education (New York: Dodd, Mead and Co., Inc., 1965), p. 63.

In 1793, Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin, a device which was to increase tremendously the production of cotton. In New England, factories were beginning to use steam as a source of power, thus multiplying the productive capacity of human hands. A number of factories contributed to stimulate manufacturing and with it a phenomenal growth of cities: rapid increase in cotton production as a source of raw material for northern factories; tariff legislation designed to protect domestic industries from foreign competition; improved means of transportation and communication resulting from the construction of canals and later, railroads, and the expansion of the western market for manufactured goods following settlement upon public lands and the exploitation of western mineral resources.¹⁰⁶

These developments were not checked by the Civil War. On the contrary, they were accelerated by what the Boards termed the "furious years of the commercial development that followed the Civil War." Particularly significant was the application of science and technology to mining and manufacture and of "Yankee ingenuity" to more efficient and profitable methods of business organizations in trade and commerce. Today, in an advanced industrial society, it is inevitable that the educational system should come into very close relationship with the economy.

Modern industrial technology, based on the substitution of electrical and atomic energy for other forms of power and introducing

¹⁰⁶Ibid., p. 67.

new and more intricate forms of the division of labor, transformed the scale of production, the economic setting of enterprise, and the productive and social role of labor. It is dependent to an unprecedented extent on the results of scientific research, on the supply of skilled and responsible manpower and consequently on the efficiency of the educational system. America's economic life has left its imprint upon education, that convenient abstraction which permits one to deal coherently with not far from 2,000 institutions of learning, diverse in character and involving millions engaged in a bewildering variety of activities. In the course of the century, both American education and economy have experienced expansions and structural modifications of revolutionary magnitude. One can perceive now more clearly than in the past a system of interdependence in the transformations which have marked these two areas of America's life. Their future developments will be linked even more intimately.¹⁰⁷

What is required now in American economic development is not the replacement of worn out parts by their equivalents, but preparation for the central change in bodies of knowledge, in skills, in materials and products, in occupational functions, in forms of organization and structure. From the point of view of manpower characteristics, flexibility and resourcefulness are key ingredients. This means that highly specialized manpower must not only be equipped to perform

¹⁰⁷ Henry David, Education and Manpower (New York: Columbia University Press, 1960), p. 299.

existing tasks, but by virtue of the breadth of education, also prepared to assume new functions without great strain or sizable new training costs. This proves very clearly that economy plays so vital a role with respect to the effective functioning of education and its continued development. Education becomes a major form of investment for the economy as a whole. Secondary schools, colleges and universities expand in number and in scope. The process of democratization affects their membership, the selection of students and recruitment of teachers, their curriculum, their perception of themselves as institutions, their structure and functioning as going concerns and in their classrooms and lecture halls, the very learning process itself.

The progress of a modern economy depends in very large measure on the rate at which improvement in technology takes place and equally important, on the speed with which these improvements are assimilated. The most outstanding characteristic of American life is the high value placed upon change, in contrast to the value that other societies place upon custom and tradition. In the major industries of the United States, labor has long been willing to accept technological changes, subject only to getting its share of the increases in profit due to increases in productivity. The American consumer is constantly looking for new and improved products and places great faith in even the most modest changes in style. Last year's car is an old car; a house constructed five years ago is an old house. Another characteristic of Americans toward change could be seen in the records of industries, businesses, farming, transportation, and trade. The ingenious investigator could fashion a quite revealing, though distorted, picture

from sources of funds, scholarship and fellowship opportunities; schools, departments and divisions of instruction; titles of specialized vocational programs; distribution of students by fields of study; degrees awarded; the annual reports of presidents; honorary degrees conferred and the work of placement bureaus.

One could derive no less suggestive an insight into the present character of and functions performed by education by reversing the exercise; involving solely the evidence provided by the economy. The number and kinds of college and university trained personnel employed in different segments of the economy; the alterations in technology; the recruitment policies pursued by industrial and other firms; the use of the college degree as a screening device in selecting managerial personnel; the character of the contributions made by business enterprises to institutions of learning; their research grants and contracts --these are still other evidences which point up the impact colleges and universities have upon the economic life of the Americans.¹⁰⁸

As one looks ahead, the rate and direction of America's future economic development will depend to a critical degree upon the quality and the number of men and women whose preparation for economic functions will be overwhelmingly a responsibility of the colleges and universities. It was always taken for granted that the abilities and skills of the labor force and, at least by implication, its educational level and the investment which a society makes in the facilities and opportunities for education, matter significantly to its economic development. It

¹⁰⁸ Ibid.

has been much easier to read a rise in educational standards in the United States as the result or as the concomitant, of economic progress than to seek to determine with any precision the inter-relationship between a society's investment in education and its economic growth. Today, Americans are becoming increasingly sensitive to the role that highly trained manpower and education play in the economic development. Whether this new awareness, which is extremely important, also has certain dangers attached to it, will be seen in the future.

Education is now competing with economic mobility as the principle route to success. Few men today rise from the bottom to the top places in industry and business as they did a generation ago. More and more sons of executives are replacing their fathers in such positions, leaving fewer positions into which the sons of those farther down can climb from the ranks. Captains of industries educate their sons to take their places or to occupy similar places in other industries. More and more top jobs in industry are being filled by men coming from the technical and engineering schools or from universities. The route for them is not through a hierarchy of increasing skill to management and ownership as it was two generations ago. Today's mobility person must prepare himself educationally if he wishes to fill an important job and provide his family with money, prestige and other amenities of life.¹⁰⁹

¹⁰⁹ Thomas E. Lincoln and Jack Nelson, Patterns of Power, Social Foundations of Education (New York: Pitman Publishing Corp., 1968), pp. 67-68.

The problems of the seventies are the combination both of persistent economic and social problems of the second world war. Most of these are caused by the scientific advancement. Some of these problems range in the economic sphere from the economics of space exploration, unemployment, inflation, and a lot of the disadvantaged, the "have nots." Furthermore, "most economic research" admits the highly respected Brookings institution, "moves slowly; it is rarely devoted to current improvements." Graduate education is increasingly elevating itself to teaching tools, analytical tools and mathematical tools in general, and graduates for whom tools are the whole of economics, will determine the content of future introductory courses. This will also leave "most liberal arts students in general and potential teachers in particular thoroughly convinced that economics is indeed a dismal science." It cannot be denied that economic and technological factors are important in the determination of class and status orders. The social systems, with its beliefs, values and rules, which govern human behavior may well determine what kind of technology and what kind of economic institutions will survive or thrive in any given tribe or society.

The experiences of "underdeveloped" societies which attempt to modernize their economics have also helped the American citizen to be more sensitive to the role of highly skilled manpower and education. The effective use of capital and the exploitation of the potentialities of scientific knowledge and technology in these areas are always dependent upon the availability of skilled workers, technicians,

and scientific and professional men, either native or imported. What occurred in the expansion of research and development expenditures in the United States, from not quite one and one-third billion dollars at the close of World War II to approximately three and one-half billion dollars currently, is significant in this context. The explosive growth of the research and development has been a primary factor in the high demand for scientists and engineers on the part of the government, industry and educational institutions. At present, it seems that manpower availability appears to have been a far more decisive limiting factor on the scale of research and development activities than dollar considerations.

The big danger, it seems clear, lies not in that direction but in the trained men and women who will be inadequate to the nation's future requirements. And this danger is enhanced if the Americans fail with respect to these three objectives; to strengthen the institutions of educational attainments; to increase the supply of young people of ability reaching the colleges, and finally, to reduce the present degree of wastage of potential ability in the population.¹¹⁰

Economic education, therefore, along with education in other aspects of the social system may well be doomed if no careful attention is given to the danger involving economic and educational institutions.

¹¹⁰ Ibid., p. 294.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

SUMMARY

A comprehensive analysis of public education and objectives in Nigeria and in the United States should be very helpful in many ways, particularly in presenting to the student of education the differences and similarities and an increasing understanding of the factors that affect the objectives of education in these two countries. Because of the differences in historical background, economic and social conditions, no two countries are expected to have a common educational objective.

This research paper includes the comparison of Nigeria and the United States which are in chronological order; historical background, economic and social aspects which have played a greater part in the educational objectives of these two countries. The sources of information for this study are books, periodicals dealing with comparative educational objectives and foreign educational programs from the United States of America. Another source of information has been magazines, interviews with people and personal observations.

Chapter I includes the introduction, the statement of the problem, the importance of the paper, definitions of terms, limitations of the study, research procedures, methodology and organization of chapters. Chapter II and III are mainly devoted respectively to a comparative study of the educational systems and objectives in

Nigeria and in the United States, from historical, social aspects, and economic viewpoints. The final Chapter IV is the summary and conclusion.

CONCLUSION

Educational objectives in the colonial period of the United States have certain similarities with the objectives of education under the British rule in Nigeria. During this era, the main aim of education was connected with religion. The purpose was to train Nigerians in the arts of reading Bibles and finally to become ministers in different churches in the country. The church and the school had everything in common. The schools served as the main source of spreading and learning about the work of God.

The United States became independent as early as 1776, and began to move toward the dynamics of mass education, and economy of abundance. Both Nigeria and the United States are traditionally committed to democratic principles of government. The Federal governments have much interest in the training of their youth in these two countries. This is done by the increasing of scholarship funds in Nigeria. In the United States, the Federal government gives loans, and scholarships to assist in mass education. Both Nigeria and the United States believe that an educated populace is the basis for a sound economy and democracy. Nigeria is planning to provide universal primary education in 1980. The disruption of the last Biafra-Nigeria civil war has affected the economy of the

country. The United States could accomplish the target of providing universal primary, secondary education for all by its highly developed, self-propelling economy.

There is not much emphasis on preprimary education in Nigeria but in America, special attention is being given towards the improvement of this area. There is a commitment to make educational opportunities a reality for the disadvantaged youth either in rural or urban areas. Equal opportunity is the key word. School curriculum in Nigeria needs drastic changes at all levels when compared to modern American school curriculum. Many courses in Nigerian schools are talked about by teachers while in America they are reality. The Nigerian school curriculum, at all levels, seems to be static when compared to the flexible and changing American curriculum. Too many languages in Nigeria seems to be a problem to Nigerian students. The Nigerian teachers have less freedom in experimenting with new ideas. The use of new instructional materials such as television and teaching machines is still a dream in Nigerian society. There is much emphasis on external examinations while in the United States the presence of standardized and intelligence tests are abundant.

After the Nigerian independence in 1960, not much was done with the aims or objectives of education, except for what the British suggested. The objectives of education laid down by the British suited them and not the Nigerians. The time has now come when Nigerian educators will re-examine and reorganize the school systems to make them effective instruments of social change and to give equal opportunity

to all. The United States is a middle class oriented country where most people have the opportunity to participate actively in school policies, and decision making. People of different professions serve on school boards to render service to both society and its educational institutions.

In Nigeria, the middle class people are a small segment of the society. The growth and influence of the small middle class is limited by economic and social order of the upper class. Lay people have no voice in education. State colleges and universities are governed by their respective boards, appointed by the military government. Curriculum improvement is now in progress to meet the needs of the society. The lack of participation of laypeople in Nigerian educational policies has resulted in a loss of a sense of individual responsibility for the country's welfare.

The United States is one of the most modern and highly industrialized countries in the world. One fact that supports this is in the efficiency of the educational system, efforts to provide equal opportunity for all and the involvement of lay citizens in formulating educational policies and participation in decision-making. The supply of skilled and responsible manpower is evidence that the United States has fulfilled educational objectives relating to the development of skills and capabilities which contribute immeasurably to the lives of individual citizens as well as the national welfare.

By and large, there is great interest by the military government of Nigeria in controlling all schools, either private or public,

starting September, 1973. This gives some hope that many educators will suggest to the government what the objectives of education should be, in order to benefit the Nigerian society and not the mother-country-Britain. Re-evaluation of courses and the educational system as a whole would help to make education more meaningful to Nigerian students. Nigeria, being an agricultural society, has included in educational practice courses that deal with agriculture. This is the backbone of the country's economy. The aim of the government is to help people have enough to eat. People were asked by the government to go back to the "soil" in 1967 before the Civil War started. Many Nigerians responded, and the whole country was teeming with food. Many students from Nigeria are now studying agriculture in foreign countries such as the United States, Israel, Germany, United Kingdom and West Indies. This means that one of the objectives of education, which is the betterment of one's life through economic opportunities, is slowly being realized. In general, American education is under the control of state governments, and the education is highly specialized as compared to Nigeria's educational system.

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